

Durham E-Theses

Factors affecting motivation to learn English: the perspective of newly arrived Hong Kong students

Wong, Ruth Ming Har

How to cite:

Wong, Ruth Ming Har (2007) *Factors affecting motivation to learn English: the perspective of newly arrived Hong Kong students*, Durham theses, Durham University. Available at Durham E-Theses Online: <http://etheses.dur.ac.uk/2909/>

Use policy

The full-text may be used and/or reproduced, and given to third parties in any format or medium, without prior permission or charge, for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes provided that:

- a full bibliographic reference is made to the original source
- a [link](#) is made to the metadata record in Durham E-Theses
- the full-text is not changed in any way

The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

Please consult the [full Durham E-Theses policy](#) for further details.

Academic Support Office, Durham University, University Office, Old Elvet, Durham DH1 3HP
e-mail: e-theses.admin@dur.ac.uk Tel: +44 0191 334 6107
<http://etheses.dur.ac.uk>

Factors Affecting Motivation to Learn English:

The Perspective of Newly Arrived Hong Kong Students

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author or the university to which it was submitted. No quotation from it, or information derived from it may be published without the prior written consent of the author or university, and any information derived from it should be acknowledged.

Ruth Ming Har WONG
MA, MA, PGDE, BSS

**A thesis submitted on partial fulfilment of the
requirement for the degree of Doctor of Education**

School of Education

University of Durham

2007



18 APR 2007

Abstract

The aim of the study is to examine and evaluate how socio-cultural factors and demographic characteristics of a group of newly arrived Hong Kong (NAHK) students affect their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. This study is conceptualised based on Dornyei's (1998) motivation framework and two additional components, parent and culture specific motivation components, are also added onto the framework in order to suit the purpose of this study.

Data were collected from two complementary sources: questionnaire and interviews. Questionnaire items were constructed based on the modification of Dornyei's motivational framework and questionnaires were distributed to 109 NAHK students' to collect their views on learning English in Hong Kong. In-depth semi-structured interviews were also conducted with 10 students to further investigate their motivation to learn English.

Statistical data found that teachers have the greatest impact on NAHK students' motivation to learn English. This result poses important pedagogical implications and considerations to educators in Hong Kong when developing curriculum and choosing materials. Statistical results also revealed parents played the least significant role in motivating NAHK students to learn English. However, the semi-structured interviews revealed another side of the story—although parents could not assist their children's English learning academically but they supported their children's English learning both spiritually and financially. Several demographic characteristics like gender, age and place of birth were found to be crucial in influencing NAHK students' English learning motivation.

The study describes the NAHK students' motivation to learn English in the hope that lights can be shed on the current teaching and learning practices and suggest implications for practice so that learner diversity in Hong Kong English learning classrooms can be catered.

Statement of copyright ©

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. No quotation from it should be published without her prior written consent and information derived from it should be acknowledged.

To my family

Acknowledgments

First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisors Dr Anwei Feng and Dr Mike Fleming for their support and advice throughout the whole supervision process. Mrs Molly Winget is the next person I am indebted to thank because she has been such a wonderful friend of mine who gives constructive feedback and comments to my work. Also, I would like to thank my parents and sisters for giving me the time to focus on my study. I would also like to convey my whole-hearted gratitude to my husband, Trevor, who has been exceptionally caring. Last but not the least, I would like to thank my heavenly Father who has been looking after me and blessing me with unfailing love and promises.

Ruth Ming Har Wong

2007

Lists of tables and figures

Table		Page
1	<i>Age distribution of NAHK children(1995—2001)</i>	5
2	<i>Number of births in Hong Kong (1996—2003)</i>	7
3	<i>Gender distribution of new arrivals (1995—2001)</i>	10
4	<i>Education level of new arrivals</i>	11
5	<i>Place of birth and new arrivals</i>	12
6	<i>Close relatives still in Mainland China</i>	13
7	<i>Close relatives in Hong Kong</i>	13
8	<i>Family income</i>	14
9	<i>Dimensions of motivational sources</i>	36
10	<i>Summary of the main motivational theories</i>	49
11	<i>William and Burden's framework of L2 motivation (1997)</i>	55
12	<i>Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation</i>	61
13	<i>Main motivational theories related to Dornyei's conceptual framework</i>	63
14	<i>Culture level added to Dornyei's extended framework of language learning motivation</i>	71
15	<i>Socio-cultural component on different motivational dimensions</i>	73
16	<i>Parent-specific motivational component added to Dornyei's conceptual framework</i>	81
17	<i>Extension of Dornyei's Extended Framework (1994)</i>	92
18	<i>Students' background information by gender, age distribution and school level</i>	98
19	<i>Students' background information by arrival year and place of birth</i>	99
20	<i>Students' family background by education, occupation and income</i>	101
21	<i>Questionnaire items developed under Dornyei's motivation framework</i>	104
22	<i>Reliability Statistics</i>	121
23	<i>Demographic characteristics of interviewees</i>	123
24	<i>Mean and SD of motivation dimension</i>	135

25	<i>Mean and SD of learner level</i>	136
26	<i>Mean and SD of specific motivational components 1</i>	145
27	<i>Mean and SD of specific motivational components 2</i>	148
28	<i>Mean and SD of culture-specific motivational components</i>	150
29	<i>Mean and SD of specific motivational components 3</i>	165
30	<i>Mean and SD of parent-specific motivational components</i>	165
31	<i>Parent education level of NAHK students</i>	167
32	<i>Mean and SD of parent-specific motivational components</i>	167
33	<i>Mean and SD of parent specific motivational components by rank</i>	173
34	<i>Mean and SD of specific motivational components 4</i>	179
35	<i>Mean and SD of teacher specific motivational components by rank</i>	181
36	<i>Mean and SD of teacher specific motivational components</i>	181
37	<i>SD and mean of teacher specific motivational components by rank</i>	184
38	<i>Comparison of girls and boys' overall motivation</i>	196
39	<i>Comparison of girls and boys' all motivation dimensions</i>	198
40	<i>Comparison of girls and boys' motivation on motivation dimension</i>	201
41	<i>Comparison of girls and boys' specific motivation components</i>	202
42	<i>Gender and parent's education cross-tabulation</i>	204
43	<i>Gender and family income cross-tabulation</i>	204
44	<i>Comparison of place of birth and overall motivation</i>	206
45	<i>Comparison of place of birth on all motivation dimensions</i>	207
46	<i>Comparison of place of birth and specific motivational components</i>	210
47	<i>Comparison of place of birth and course-specific motivational components</i>	212
48	<i>Year of arrival and NAHK students' motivation</i>	214
49	<i>Year of arrival and different motivation at different levels</i>	215
50	<i>Year of arrival and motivation components</i>	218
51	<i>Age and NAHK students' motivation</i>	223

52	<i>Age and NAHK students' motivation on language level</i>	225
53	<i>Age and NAHK students' motivation on learner level</i>	227
54	<i>Age and NAHK students' motivation on learning situation level</i>	229
55	<i>Age and NAHK students' course-specific motivational components</i>	231
56	<i>Age and NAHK students' course-specific motivational components</i>	232
57	<i>Age and NAHK students' teacher-specific motivational components</i>	233
58	<i>Age and NAHK students' group-specific motivational components</i>	235
59	<i>Age and NAHK students' parent-specific motivational components</i>	237
60	<i>Age and NAHK students' parent-specific motivational components</i>	239
61	<i>School form attending and overall motivation</i>	243
62	<i>School form attending and language level</i>	245
63	<i>School form attending and learner level</i>	247
64	<i>Motivation dimension: Learning situation level</i>	249
65	<i>School form attending and specific motivation components</i>	251
66	<i>Parents' income and NAHK students' motivation</i>	255
67	<i>NAHK students' parent specific motivational components by rank</i>	256
68	<i>Parent' education level and NAHK students' motivation</i>	259
69	<i>Different motivation dimension and parents' education level</i>	260
70	<i>Different specific motivation components and parents' education level</i>	261
71	<i>Research questions and hypotheses</i>	264

Figure		Page
1	<i>Relationships and development of the three motivational approaches</i>	25
2	<i>Tremblay and Gardner's extended L2 motivation model</i>	43
3	<i>The influence of culture on behaviour</i>	69
4	<i>Motivational components based on Dornyei's extended conceptual framework</i>	82
5	<i>Birthplace of subjects in China</i>	100
6	<i>Flow chart of chapter organisation</i>	132
7	<i>Year of arrival and NAHK students' motivation</i>	216
8	<i>Age and NAHK students' motivation</i>	223
9	<i>Age and language level</i>	225
10	<i>Age and learner level</i>	227
11	<i>Age and learning situation</i>	229
12	<i>Age and course specific motivation</i>	231
13	<i>Age and teacher specific motivation</i>	233
14	<i>Age and group specific motivation</i>	235
15	<i>Age and parents specific motivation</i>	237
16	<i>Age and culture specific motivation</i>	239
17	<i>School form attending and NAHK students' motivation</i>	243
18	<i>School form attending and NAHK students' motivation at language level</i>	245
19	<i>School form attending and NAHK students' motivation at learner level</i>	247
20	<i>School form attending and NAHK students' motivation at learning situation level</i>	249
21	<i>Parents' income and NAHK students' motivation</i>	255
22	<i>Parents' education level and NAHK students' motivation</i>	259

Contents	Page
<i>Abstract</i>	<i>i</i>
<i>Statement of copyright</i>	<i>ii</i>
<i>Dedication</i>	<i>iii</i>
<i>Acknowledgements</i>	<i>iv</i>
<i>Lists of tables and Figures</i>	<i>v</i>
<i>Table of contents</i>	<i>xiv</i>
 Chapter 1 Introduction	 1
1.1 New arrivals and newly arrived Hong Kong students	2
1.2 Background	3
1.2.1 Immigration Policy in Hong Kong Special Administrative Region	4
1.2.2 Demographic characteristics of new arrivals	8
1.2.2.1 Gender	8
1.2.2.2 Education background	11
1.2.2.3 Place of Birth	11
1.2.2.4 Close relatives still in Mainland China and close relatives in Hong Kong	12
1.2.2.5 Family income	14
1.2.3 Learning environment differences between HKSAR and Mainland China	15
1.3 Significance of study	18

Chapter 2	Literature Review—Major motivation theories and approaches	20
2.1	Terminological Issues	20
2.2	Theories and approaches on language learning motivation	23
2.2.1	Limitations of class approaches	23
2.2.2	Mechanistic Approaches	25
2.2.3	Psychological approaches	25
Chapter 3	Literature Review—Motivation on L2 Learning	38
3.1	Importance of Motivation in L2 learning	38
3.2	Socio-cultural and contextual approaches	40
3.3	Modification of Dornyei’s motivational framework	65
3.3.1	Addition of Cultural component to Dornyei’s Framework	66
3.3.2	Addition of Parent-specific component onto Dornyei’s framework	74
3.4	Chinese students learning motivation	83
Chapter 4	Methodology	87
4.1	Research Questions	87
4.2	Conceptual framework	89
4.3	Design of research methods	93
4.4	Sampling	96
4.5	Research instrument	102
4.5.1	Quantitative: Use of questionnaire	103
4.5.2	Qualitative: Interview	121

4.6	Procedures	127
4.7	Data analysis	128
4.8	Ethical issues	130
Chapter 5	Findings	132
5.1	A general picture: Overall attitude to learn English	133
5.2	Testing the three motivation dimensions: Language, learner and learning situation levels	134
5.2.1	Learner level: Strong instrumental value and determination but lack of self-confidence	135
5.2.2	Examining specific motivational components	143
5.2.3	Factors affecting students' motivation to learn English—Cultural adjustment: A motivational catalyst to learn English	147
5.2.4	Factors affecting students' motivation to learn English— Parents' role supporting English learning	164
5.2.5	Factors affecting students' motivation to learn English— Teachers as English learning facilitator	178
5.3	Demographic factors influencing motivation to learn English	193
5.3.1	Gift of language: Girls only?	193
5.3.2	Neighbours of Hong Kong: More motivated for English acquisition?	205
5.3.3	The longer one stays, the stronger motivation?	213
5.3.4	The older the more motivated?	220
5.3.5	School form attending: An extrinsic motivator to learn English?	240

5.3.6	Financial support and spiritual support serve as motivator to learn English	254
5.3.7	Parents with higher education can motivate children	258
Chapter 6	Discussions	264
Chapter 7	Limitations of study	288
Chapter 8	Conclusions and Implications	290
	<i>Bibliography</i>	295
	<i>Appendices</i>	339
	<i>Appendix 1--Sample of interview transcript</i>	338
	<i>Appendix 2--Questionnaire (English version)</i>	362
	<i>Appendix 3--Questionnaire (Chinese version)</i>	369
	<i>Appendix 4--Informed consent form</i>	377
	<i>Appendix 5--Grand table of means of motivation components</i>	378

Chapter 1

Introduction

This chapter will

- *provide the background information about the new arrivals and newly arrived Hong Kong students*
- *describe the immigration policy in Hong Kong;*
- *look at the demographic characteristics of new arrivals;*
- *compare the learning differences between Hong Kong and Mainland China;*
- *demonstrate the significance of the study.*

Infants and young children are full of curiosity and always driven by an intense need to explore, interact with, and make sense of their environment. No parents will complain that their young children are unmotivated. However, as children grow, often their passion for learning seems to diminish. Also, a change of living environment and learning setting might also be factors that influence their motivation to learn.

With the influx of Mainland Chinese children from different provinces to Hong Kong to unite with their parent(s) since 1997, the educational issues of this group of newly arrived Hong Kong (NAHK hereafter) students' English



learning have become increasingly intense. The issues of motivation and the successful acquisition of English for this group of students in Hong Kong are also complex because of their diverse backgrounds. When investigating language learning it is not enough simply to observe input, in terms of the amount of time spent studying the language and then output, expressed as linguistic performance. In order to examine language learning in context, it is necessary to explore a number of factors which contribute to the way in which NAHK students learn English in Hong Kong.

Brophy (1987) indicated that learners are frequently stimulated most directly through modelling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers). School-wide goals and policies also alter students' increasingly complex learning motivation. Which of these factors and to what extent do these factors affect NAHK students' motivation to learn more in the context of English learning? How can researchers systematically examine NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong? Which motivation model is appropriate to assess this group of students' motivation to learn English? How do NAHK students' demographic characteristics affect their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong? These questions are the key issues of the current study.

1.1 New arrivals and newly arrived Hong Kong students

Readers are reminded that there are two terminologies used in this thesis: “new arrivals” and “NAHK students”. “New arrivals” and “NAHK students” are used in different senses. “New arrivals” refers to the whole population of Mainland

Chinese who come to Hong Kong to unite with their families regardless of their personal and family background. “NAHK students” refers to the specific target group of this study—secondary school students who arrived in Hong Kong between the year 1997—2004.

1.2 Background

In order to understand the motivation to learn English of the NAHK students, attention has to be drawn to the background of the immigration policy of Hong Kong and the demographic characteristics of the new arrivals. The new arrivals are not a group of immigrants with common characteristics—some have been desperately waiting and longing to come to Hong Kong for years (because of the tight immigration policy) to unite with their families, while some, especially young people do not come to Hong Kong willingly as they have to leave their friends behind and go to a foreign place to start their life over again. Also, the background of the new arrivals is different. It is hypothesized that the background of individuals is a determining factor that affects how well they adjust to the new environment. In order to understand the background of this study better, the nature of the immigration policy for the new arrivals in Hong Kong, the demographic characteristics of the NAHK students and the differences between Hong Kong’s and Mainland China’s learning environment will be looked at in this chapter.

1.2.1 Immigration Policy in Hong Kong Special Administrative Region

Occupied by the UK in 1841, Hong Kong was formally ceded by China the following year; various adjacent lands were added later in the 19th century. More than one hundred years later, pursuant to an agreement signed by China and the UK on 19 December 1984, Hong Kong became the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (SAR) of China on 1 July 1997.

During the colonial years, Hong Kong people were not allowed to have their spouse and children who were Mainland born come to Hong Kong freely. Immigration policy was tight and in many cases, years had to be waited to process their application to unite with their families in Hong Kong. However, a few years before the handover, the Hong Kong immigration policy was loosened. Mainland Chinese born children and spouses of Hong Kong born permanent residents were allowed to come to Hong Kong to have a family reunion. On 29 January 1999, the Court of Final Appeal (based on the Basic Law of Hong Kong Special Administrative Region) granted Mainland Chinese born children whose parents were Hong Kong born to possess the right of abode and they were entitled to come to Hong Kong to unite with their families. After seven years of consecutively residing in Hong Kong, these NAK children are given Hong Kong permanent citizenship and resident identity. The present immigration policy allows 150 One-way Permits to be issued for Mainland Chinese to come to Hong Kong every day, of which 60 are for children (HKSSA, 2001).

According to the official statistics, there is an increasing number of children coming to Hong Kong from the Mainland (see table 1). There are 6,898 (15%) people who are aged 10-19 and 12,416 (27%) who are aged under 10 years old who came to Hong Kong in 1995. While in 1996, the numbers are 10,339 and 19,027 respectively. Until 2000, there are altogether 65,579 children who are aged from 10-19 and 82,947 children who had come to Hong Kong from the period of 1995 to 2000(HKSSA, 2001). According to the Mainland Chinese immigrant policy, children who come to Hong Kong as a dependent have to be under 18 years old.

Table 1 *Age distribution of NAHK children (1995-2001)*

Year	Age							Total
	Under 10	10—19	20—29	30—39	40—49	50—59	60 or above	
1995	12,416 (27%)	6,898 (15%)	9,933 (21.4%)	8,553 (18.6%)	5,228 (11.5%)	1,610 (3.5%)	1,288 (2.7%)	45,926
1996	19,027 (31.1%)	10,339 (16.9%)	9,605 (15.7%)	9,116 (14.9%)	9,727 (15.9%)	2,141 (3.4%)	1,224 (2.0%)	61,179
1997	7,141 (14.2%)	11,214 (22.3%)	8,851 (17.6%)	9,704 (18.7%)	9,303 (18.5%)	2,615 (5.2%)	1,762 (3.5%)	50,590
1998	14,402 (25.7%)	18,661 (33.3%)	2,746 (4.9%)	8,518 (15.2%)	6,726 (11.2%)	2,634 (4.7%)	2,802 (5.0%)	56,489
1999	17,535 (32.1%)	8,631 (15.7%)	5,189 (9.5%)	16,169 (29.6%)	4,425 (8.1%)	1,256 (2.2%)	1,420 (2.6%)	54,625
2000	12,426 (21.6%)	9,838 (17.1%)	8,112 (14.1%)	16,339 (2.4%)	4,257 (7.4%)	2,531 (4.4%)	4,027 (7.0%)	57,530
2001	13,674 (38.9%)	11,408 (32.5%)	9316 (26.5%)	18,461 (52.3%)	3,803 (10.8%)	1,187 (3.4%)	1,806 (5.1%)	59,655
Total	96,621	76,987	53,752	68,399	43,534	13,974	14,329	385,994

Source: HKSSA, 2001

It is believed that the number of Chinese new immigrants coming to Hong Kong every year is an alarming figure which certainly deserves attention from researchers and educators. The increasing number of Chinese new immigrants coming to Hong Kong shows that the ratio between Chinese new immigrants and Hong Kong local born students change over the year. That is, students from Mainland China will compose a significant, though not major, part of Hong Kong school children. The following question one may ask is, “Do teachers in Hong Kong need to pay more attention to cater for Chinese new immigrants’ needs when they teach?” As one can see from Table 1, the number of school children coming to Hong Kong from Mainland China has been increasing while the birth rate of Hong Kong born children has been decreasing. The population growth of Hong Kong in 2003-4 is 0.6% dropped from 0.9% in 2002-3, of which the inflow of One-way Permit holders (OWPHs) were important constituents of the overall population increase (CSD, 2004). In that case, all sorts of educational practices may change due to the change of population. How the future educational scenario in Hong Kong will develop deserves attention from educators and policy makers before any decision can be made in planning the future direction of education reform. The inflow of NAHK students will certainly be an important factor that policy makers and educators need to take into account during the process of curriculum planning, syllabus designing and teaching. This group of people, therefore, deserves attention.

Table 2 *Number of births in Hong Kong (1996—2003)*

Number of births		Year-on-year % change
Year	('000)	
1996	63.3	-7.8
1997	59.3	-6.4
1998	53.0	-10.6
1999	51.3	-3.2
2000	54.1	5.6
2001	48.2	-10.9
2002	48.2	0.0
2003	47.0	-2.6

Source: CSD, 2005

When the new arrivals come to Hong Kong, assistance is provided by the HKSAR Government. Those children who are at the age of 15 or lower are given a place in an ordinary government or subsidized school within 21 working days. Alternatively, they are provided with several induction programmes. Two of these are a 60-hour bridging programme (one is an English remedial programme) and a six-month initiation programme to strengthen their basic learning skills and foster social adaptation before they enrol in mainstream schools in Hong Kong. Approximately 19,000 NAHK children have benefited from such a programme every year. However, NAHK students who are aged over 15 receive less assistance from the government. They may choose either to start working or keep studying after they come to Hong Kong. If students choose to study, they will have to search for places without governmental assistance. Very often, students will be admitted to direct subsidized schools (DSS), which are more flexible in student enrolment (HKSSA, 2001). Here, it is

obvious that government assistance only benefits those who are under 15 years old, while those who are over 15 are from an ignored group receiving little help from the government.

1.2.2 Demographic characteristics of new arrivals

New arrivals in Hong Kong are a group of Mainland Chinese with more diverse backgrounds and characteristics than immigrants of other countries. The following statistical data attempt to give readers a general picture of the new arrivals' background in the hope that better understanding of this group of immigrants can be generated because the background of the NAHK students may be a factor affecting their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. Information provided in the following section includes gender distribution, education background, place of birth, family income, whether the new arrivals have close relatives in Mainland China and close relatives in Hong Kong.

1.2.2.1 Gender

For gender distribution, more females came to Hong Kong than males from 1995—2001. These figures suggest that women who come to Hong Kong do so to unite with their Hong Kong born husband as the number of females who age between 20—60 or above are significantly more than males. However, there are more male new arrivals who are aged under 10. Percentages of males and females coming to Hong Kong are 30.3% and 66.8% respectively (see table 3). This is possibly because of the traditional Chinese values that sees boys as being more important than

girls. When parents are given a chance to have their child come to Hong Kong, they will probably choose a young son rather than an elder daughter. Information about the gender distribution helps us to further investigate if there is any difference between male Chinese immigrants' and female Chinese new immigrants' motivational pattern to learn English and decide whether gender may be a factor affecting students' motivation to learn English.

Table 3 Gender distribution of new arrivals (1995-2001)

Year	Gender (%)															
	10 or below		10-19		20-29		30-39		40-49		50-59		60 or above		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1995	6,530 (14.2%)	5,886 (12.8%)	3,863 (8.4%)	3,265 (7.1%)	2,391 (5.2%)	7,450 (3.2%)	1,701 (3.7%)	6,852 (14.9%)	920 (2.0%)	4,277 (9.3%)	322 (0.7%)	1,196 (2.6%)	368 (0.8%)	874 (1.9%)	16,140 (35.1%)	29,845 (64.9%)
1996	9,972 (16.3%)	9,054 (14.8%)	5,139 (8.4%)	5,200 (8.5%)	1,958 (3.2%)	7,647 (12.5%)	1,529 (2.5%)	4,786 (12.4%)	918 (1.5%)	8,871 (14.5%)	306 (0.5%)	1,774 (2.9%)	367 (0.6%)	857 (1.4%)	20,189 (33.0%)	40,990 (67.0%)
1997	3,721 (7.4%)	3,420 (6.8%)	5,682 (11.3%)	5,532 (11%)	1,911 (3.8%)	6,940 (13.8%)	905 (1.8%)	905 (1.8%)	603 (1.2%)	8,750 (17.4%)	302 (0.6%)	2,313 (4.6%)	402 (0.8%)	1,358 (2.7%)	13,527 (26.9%)	36,760 (73.1%)
1998	7,509 (13.4%)	6,893 (12.3%)	9,359 (16.7%)	9,302 (16.6%)	841 (1.5%)	1,905 (3.4%)	504 (0.9%)	8,014 (14.3%)	672 (1.2%)	5,604 (10.0%)	168 (0.3%)	2,466 (4.4%)	336 (0.6%)	2,466 (4.4%)	19,389 (34.6%)	36,650 (65.4%)
1999	8,959 (16.4%)	8,576 (15.7%)	4,206 (7.7%)	4,479 (8.2%)	1,147 (2.1%)	4,042 (7.4%)	1,475 (2.7%)	14,640 (26.8%)	765 (1.4%)	3,715 (6.8%)	164 (0.3%)	1,038 (1.9%)	273 (0.5%)	1,147 (2.1%)	16,988 (31.1%)	37,637 (30.3%)
2000	6,420 (11.2%)	6,001 (10.4%)	4,819 (8.4%)	5,038 (8.8%)	2,019 (3.5%)	6,092 (10.6%)	2,251 (3.9%)	14,069 (24.5%)	994 (1.7%)	3,278 (5.7%)	379 (0.7%)	2,172 (3.8%)	541 (0.9%)	1,765 (3.1%)	17,423 (30.3%)	38,415 (66.8%)
2001	7,130 (13.3%)	6,544 (12.2%)	2,704 (5.0%)	8,704 (5.0%)	1,914 (3.6%)	7,402 (13.8%)	4,709 (8.8%)	13,752 (25.6%)	1,242 (2.3%)	2,561 (4.8%)	363 (0.7%)	824 (1.5%)	450 (0.8%)	1,356 (2.5%)	18,512 (34.5%)	35,143 (65.5%)

Source: Security Bureau, HKSAR (2003)

1.2.2.2 Education Background

To take year 1999 and 2001 as an example, the figures show that approximately 10% of new arrivals received tertiary education. Over 50% have secondary education level while over 30% of them only possess primary education level. These figures show that most of the new arrivals are not highly educated and these figures closely relate to their occupation and the family income they receive after they come to Hong Kong. Education background suggest something about the parents’ academic competence in helping their English learning. Parents’ education background constitutes an factor which influences whether students have more opportunities to acquire and be exposed to English.

Table 4 Education level of new arrivals

Education Level	Year 1999	Year2000	Year 2001 (1 st quarter)
Tertiary level or above	1,432 (5.5%)	2,122 (7.0%)	489 (6.3%)
Senior high school	5,601(21.6%)	7,636 (25.6%)	2,032 (26.2%)
Junior high school	11,505 (44.3%)	13,238 (44.3%)	3,552 (45.8%)
Primary level	6,081(23.4%)	5,348 (17.9%)	1,318 (17.0%)
Kindergarten / no education	1,353 (5.2%)	1,542 (5.2%)	364 (4.7%)

Source: Security Bureau, HKSAR. (2003)

1.2.2.3 Place of birth

According to the figures of years 2000 and 2001, most new arrivals are from Guangdong province, Fujian and Shanghai. The number of people who are from Guangdong is much higher than those from other provinces. Whether place of birth is a determining factor affecting

students’ motivation to learn remains an unsettled question. Are students from Guangdong mastering better English? Or do students from provinces other than Guangdong have weaker motivation to learn English? This study intends to find out the answer to these questions.

Table 5 *Place of birth and new arrivals*

Place of birth	Year 2000 (%)	Year 2001 (1 st quarter) (%)
Guangdong Province	24,697 (82.7%)	6,901 (83.2%)
Fujian Province	759 (2.5%)	439 (5.3%)
Guangxi Province	494 (1.7%)	224 (2.7%)
Hainan Province	587 (2.0%)	91 (1.1%)
Shanghai	174 (0.6%)	58 (0.7%)
Others	3,147 (10.5%)	580 (7.0%)

Source: Security Bureau, HKSAR (2003)

1.2.2.4 Close relatives still in Mainland China and close relatives in Hong Kong

According to Table 6 and 7, most of the new arrivals still have close family members in Mainland China. Most of them are their siblings and mother. It is obvious that a lot of new arrivals’ families have not yet been completely united, according to the figure shown in year 1999 and 2000. Either father, or mother is still in Mainland China or their sons and daughters are still living in Mainland China. These figures send us an alarming message—a majority of NAHK children are having a “temporary single-parent family”. Lack of parental care and encouragement may affect children’s social adjustment to a new

environment. Poor social integration can be a factor which deters their motivation to learn, not only English but also other subjects.

Table 6 *Close relatives still in Mainland China*

Relative type	Year 1999 (%)	Year 2000 (%)	Year 2001 (1 st quarter) (%)
Siblings	15,407 (59.3%)	18,371 (61.5%)	5,180 (66.8%)
Mother	11,741 (45.2%)	13,601 (45.6%)	4,001 (51.6%)
Father	8,584 (33.0%)	9,890 (33.1%)	2,877 (37.1%)
Sons and daughters	6,329 (24.4%)	9,947 (33.3%)	2,458 (31.7%)
Spouse	5,243 (30.2%)	4,533 (15.2%)	1,264 (16.3%)
Others	9,104 (35.1%)	10,308 (34.5%)	2,489 (32.1%)

*The percentage will add up more than 100 in total as some new arrivals have more than one close relatives still residing in Mainland China. *Source: Home Office, HKSAR (2001)*

Table 7 *Close relatives in Hong Kong*

Relative type	Year 1999 (%)	Year 2000 (%)
Spouse	15,085 (58.1%)	16,723 (56.0%)
Sons or Daughters	12,051(46.4%)	13,506 (45.2%)
Father	9,868 (38.0%)	11,742 (39.3%)
Mother	9,187 (35.4%)	11,163 (37.4%)
Siblings	8,667 (33.4%)	10,493 (35.1%)
Others	8,402 (32.4%)	7,054 (23.6%)

*The percentage will add up more than 100 in total as some new arrivals have more than one close relatives still residing in Mainland China.

Source: Home Office, HKSAR (2001)

1.2.2.5 Family income

According to the figure shown in 1999 and 2000, over 40% of new arrivals' family income is lower than *HK\$7,000 (US\$900)* while only 20% of the total Hong Kong population receive *HK\$7,000* family income. The low family income they receive may be closely related to their educational level and background. This also proves that this group of immigrants is from "grass-root" social class. Financial support is always a bonus to help children to learn without worries. However, financial burden can also be a factor that makes parents involuntarily not able to support what their children need such as buying reference books and going to tutorial school. This study therefore intends to see if family income is a factor affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English.

Table 8 *Family income*

Family income (HK\$)	1999(%)	2000(%)
Below 3,000	3,886 (15.0%)	5,379 (18.0%)
3,000 – 4,999	2,623 (10.1%)	3,414 (11.4%)
5,000 – 6,999	4,998 (19.2%)	5,815 (19.5%)
7,000 – 8,999	5,849 (22.5%)	5,944 (19.9%)
9,000 – 10,999	4,327 (16.7%)	4,350 (14.6%)
11,000 – 12,999	2,039 (7.9%)	2,160 (7.2%)
13,000 – 14,999	946 (3.6%)	1,047 (3.5%)
Over 15,000	1,254 (4.8%)	1,742 (5.8%)
unknown	49 (0.2%)	6 (0.02%)

Source: Home Office, HKSAR (2001)

Having viewed a general picture of the new arrivals, one can see that their demographic characteristics are relatively complicated. This study intends to investigate if their background is related to and affects their motivation to learn English.

1.2.3 Learning environment differences between HKSAR and Mainland China

Since the first challenge these children may face is education, they may be overwhelmed by the unfamiliar learning environment and besieged with conflicting emotions as they react to new surroundings. Tremendous differences of English learning environment exist between Hong Kong and Mainland China, English proficiency may be another challenge they need to deal with. According to Choi (2001), common problems new arrivals faced include low English proficiency; attending lower class at older age due to language problems; not being able to adapt to new lifestyle.

Hong Kong has adopted a nine-year compulsory schooling system and English is a compulsory subject throughout the nine years. Many students in Hong Kong start learning English at the age of three and some even receive English Language education before they enter kindergarten. Although China has also adopted a nine-year compulsory schooling system, foreign languages such as English are optional courses in primary education and their importance is placed after the Chinese Language and Mathematics. English was only introduced into Mainland Chinese Primary Curriculum in 1986. Only in some major cities like Beijing and Shanghai, English was introduced as a compulsory subject from the

first year of primary school in autumn 2003. However, English is still not taught in rural areas in China (Din & Lau, 2001). That means students in China start learning English at various ages depending on individual provinces and school's policy. Take Beijing as an example, China's educational authorities do not require kindergartens to open foreign language classes; however, English is a compulsory subject in most Beijing's kindergartens. In other words, unless the NAHK students come from major cities, their English proficiency is very likely lower than that of Hong Kong local students.

Second, English has been used as the medium of instruction in other subjects taught in schools for many years in Hong Kong; but this is not the case in Mainland China. Not until 2002, South China's Guangdong Province planned to require some senior high schools to use English as the medium of instruction in their curriculum in attempt to help mainland southerners match the English proficiency of residents in neighbouring Hong Kong, a report of Xinhua says (SCMP, 10 June 2002). After several years of implementation, there have been many major cities across Mainland China who have followed the same step.

Third, English textbooks have long been used in all Hong Kong universities. However, only recently the Ministry of Education required Chinese universities under its direct administration to use English textbooks in teaching the English language, information technology, biology, finance and law in the coming three years. Adopting English version textbooks is just a new trend in Beijing's universities. More and more universities are now running courses that use English version textbooks for non-English-major students, especially for those majoring in computing, management and economics. The English learning

environment in China is quickly developing but still yet not as sophisticated as in Hong Kong (Ming Pao, 2003).

Fourth, students in Hong Kong have 8-9 periods of English a week; while in China, depending whether an individual school has offered foreign languages, students receive English lessons ranging from 3-8 English lessons a week. Some schools in rural areas do not even offer English Language classes. The English exposure of Hong Kong students is higher than that of mainland students.

Finally, English and Chinese are both the official languages in Hong Kong, and English has long been widely used in various business sectors, government, and international trade. It is known that it is difficult to get a good job without sufficient English proficiency in Hong Kong. However, Chinese is the only official language in China. It is still possible to get a good job without any proficiency in English, although English is now becoming important in international trade and business sectors.

Because of the aforementioned differences, it is commonly known that students who have recently come from the mainland differ from the Hong Kong local students in terms of their English proficiency, learning environment and exposure, which may affect their motivation to learn the target language and their adjustment to the new environment. To better help the NAHK students to adapt to the new learning environment and learn the English Language, an understanding of their learning motivation and a further discussion on teaching and learning English will be necessary.

1.3 Significance of study

After exploring the background of the present study, one should have a general understanding of how NAHK students are different from the locally born Hong Kong students in terms of their demographic characteristics and past English learning experience which highlight several important aspects of the present study. The significance of this study is multi-faceted.

First of all, this study adopts a motivation framework which embraces the major motivation theories in the past literature and it will provide future education researchers with a comprehensive motivation framework to investigate how different levels of motivational dimensions and socio-cultural factors affect motivation to learn English in a specific context.

Secondly, pedagogical implications can be drawn from this study and they will be of interests to the Hong Kong in-service English teachers. The motivation pattern will enable English teachers to understand the fundamental learning needs of NAHK students. Knowing which socio-cultural factors and in what ways each of these factors impact on NAHK students' motivation to learn English will help teachers to choose the right materials; adjust their teaching methodologies and create a classroom setting conducive to English learning.

Finally, this study also draws significance to English curriculum planning. With the understanding of how demographic characteristics of NAHK students relate to English learning motivation, curriculum planners will be able to revisit

whether learner needs and differences of NAHK students have been catered and addressed in the current curriculum. Appropriate learning objectives can be designed, structured and graded according to the learning needs and learner diversity in English classrooms.

Chapter 2

Literature Review—

Major motivation theories and approaches

This chapter will...

- *look at the terminological issues of motivation, and*
- *examine the major approaches and theories on motivation*

To understand NAHK students' motivation pattern, it is important to explore the terminological issues of motivation first. Then, it will be necessary to look at the main motivational theories and approaches and how those motivation theories were developed into the comprehensive motivation framework adopted in this study.

2.1 Terminological Issues

What is motivation? The term *motivation* is derived from the Latin *movere* (to move). The idea of movement is reflected in such commonsense ideas about motivation as something that gets people going and keeps people moving.

Despite this commonly held idea, definitions of motivation are numerous and varied and there is much disagreement over the precise nature of motivation.

“Motivation” is therefore indeed a complicated term to define and many scholars have tried to provide a definition. Just as Galloway et al. (1998)

claimed it would be uninteresting if motivation were a straightforward concept, Ellis (1985) also stated, there has been no agreement on definitions of motivation and it has been used as a general term, which includes a number of possible concepts. Littlewood (1996) expressed the complexity of motivation, which includes many components like the individual's drive, need for achievement and success, curiosity, desire for stimulation and new experience.

Why is motivation a complex term to define? Dornyei (2001) pointed out the inherent problems of motivation in L2 research precisely: motivation is abstract and not directly observable; motivation is a multidimensional construct; and motivation is inconstant.

Many scholars have been trying to explain the meaning of motivation on different levels. In early studies, motivation to learn was considered in terms of external forces and biological needs. The definition is rather simple and does not embrace the function of motivation. However, in the late 90s, discussion about motivation was once again on the agenda. Murray (1983) defined motivation as "press", that is, the urge to release tension and satisfy needs. Williams and Burden (1997) believed motivation reinforces early attempts to learn while Petri (1996) stated motivation is the concept used when describing the forces acting on or within an organism to initiate and direct behaviour. Williams & Burden (1997:121) also proposed motivation may be construed as "a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal."

DeCharms (1976) indicated that personal experience formed a mediating link to a person's behaviour through attributing meaning to the environmental event.

Gardner (1985) described second language acquisition as a cyclical process, in which motivation interacts with a number of social and personal factors, such as anxiety, teacher, parents and culture.

Among many of the proposed definitions of motivation, Dornyei gave a comprehensive one which embraces the functions and roles of motivation in affecting the learning process. Dornyei (2001:9) described the meaning of motivation in the following terms, it “concerns the direction and magnitude of human behaviour, that is: the choice of a particular action, the persistence with it, the effort expended on it.” Dornyei (ibid: 9) also defined motivation as “the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalised and acted out.” Motivation is therefore a study of the internal processes that give behaviour energy and direction. Motivation originates from a variety of sources (needs, cognitions, and emotions). These internal processes energise and direct behaviour in multiple ways such as starting, sustaining, intensifying, focusing and stopping it.

Motivation refers to learners' internal needs and desires to thoughts, feelings, and actions which are directed by external stimuli. It is also believed that motivation is a socio-psychological construct which is mainly affected by

external stimuli ranging from schools to cultural influence. Such a socio-psychological process helps learners to decide whether to exert or retrieve effort to complete or terminate the learning tasks. This present study will, therefore, look at learners' behaviour as a socio-psychological product of external influence and it will also investigate how these external stimuli, namely teachers, parents, courses, peers and culture, influence students' motivational pattern which determines their learning behaviour. By understanding their relationship, educators will be able to adopt appropriate teaching methodologies to cater for individual learning differences between Hong Kong local students and NAHK students.

2.2 Theories and approaches on language learning motivation

2.2.1 Limitations of class approaches

In the past few decades, motivation researches appear to be in an exhilarating state of flux. A variety of motivational approaches and perspectives has been increasingly acknowledged and developed. Each approach focuses on different components in an attempt to explain the role of motivation in education psychology. Educational researchers and psychologists have expended considerable effort in identifying the socio-psychological variables that influence students' motivation to learn (Schunk, 1990; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Wigfield *et al*, 1998).

According to Weiner (1992), motivation theories can be categorized into three main streams or approaches: mechanistic approach, expectancy-value approach and attribution approach. Further development of the aforementioned main streams of motivational theories and approaches have been evolving for the past few decades. Weiner's classification on motivation models are now deemed to be limited and narrow. Plus a tremendous number of approaches and models have developed after Weiner's work was published. Weiner's classification is no longer sufficient to embrace all works developed in subsequent decades. His classification focuses primarily on three main conceptual frameworks which can be classified under Dornyei's framework. Dornyei's framework has been adopted as the theoretical framework of this study. Apart from mechanistic approach, Dornyei (2001) argued that there have been two distinct motivational traditions based on the preceding approaches and models. They are *psychological* theories in motivation and theories focused on *socio-cultural and contextual* influences on behaviour. Motivational psychologists search for motives for human behaviour in the individual rather than in the social being, focusing primarily on psychological or internal factors. For example, drive, arousal and cognitive self-appraisal. As for social psychologists, they tend to see action as the function of the social context and the interpersonal/intergroup relational patterns, as measured by means of the individual's social attitudes. This classification seems reasonable as motivation, a psychological state of mind, intertwines with the external environment including social, cultural and contextual factors that provokes certain behaviours. That is, behaviours are derived from the interrelationship between the inner self of individuals and the

outer world. The relationship and development of the three motivational approaches can be interpreted as the following pyramid (see Figure 1).



Figure 1 Relationships and development of the three motivational approaches

In the following section, this study will look at relevant motivational theories, under mechanistic approach and psychological approach which served the foundation of the theoretical base adopted.

2.2.2 Mechanistic Approaches

The first motivation approach this study looks at is mechanistic approach. Mechanistic approaches were developed as the foundation of most motivational studies and they are the earliest researches and studies on motivation. The most prominent theories are Freud's (1926) psychoanalytic theory and Hull's drive theory. Freud believed human behaviour is driven by instinctual desires (cited in Weiner, 1992, p.28-29). Hull's drive theory (1943) believed motivation is determined by drive, habit and incentive and it is affected by frustration, anxiety, conflict and despair. However, both Freud and Hull's theories have

little relation and relevance to the actual classroom setting as they both only focus on biological needs and have separated the close relationship between motivation and learning. Galloway et al. (1998) also commented that drive is in actual fact very difficult for teachers to influence. That is, the notion of nurturing motivation through teaching become impossible under mechanistic motivation theories. Therefore, both Freud and Hull's theories are of limited value in investigating motivation and classroom teaching and learning, though both laid the foundation of motivational studies. Their theories are not applicable in this study to investigate NAHK students and have not been adopted.

Mechanistic motivation approaches are limited as they are difficult to test empirically because of their vagueness. They assume motivation stems for inner forces that are often unconscious. They downgrade the importance of personal cognition and environmental factors that are educationally significant. In order to help students, one needs to examine their goals, interests, values and how they are affected by teachers and other students, or perhaps parents. By investigating the significance of the outer world, motivation to learn can be evaluated and implications for teaching and learning can hence be drawn.

Since the traditional motivational theories were no longer sufficient to study motivation within complicated teaching and learning contexts, further theories and frameworks were developed extensively in the following decades.

Psychological approaches and socio-cultural and contextual approaches are the major streams of motivational studies.

2.2.3 Psychological approaches

During the last four decades, many researchers adopted the framework of expectancy-value approach in order to investigate learning motivation. The most classic one is Atkinson's achievement motivation theory (Atkinson, 1966). His theory dominated the study of motivation for nearly two decades. Atkinson believed human's motivational behaviours are determined by their goals and by their subjective value. He believed individuals usually maximise their personal pursuits by selecting those activities which are likely to meet their high-valued goals. His theory focuses on two main factors: expectancy of success and value, the greater likelihood the learner perceives goal-attainment and value of a specific task, the higher degree his/her motivation will be. He viewed achievement behaviour as the result of emotional conflict between hopes for success and fears of failure. His theory focuses on students' expectation for their achievement related values. He also proposed that students' motivation is a stable trait across different contexts, which arises largely from two personality orientations: the achievement-oriented personality and the failure threatened personality.

Atkinson's theory placed great importance on achievement which can not be refuted, it is therefore important to be included in this study as one of the motivational components to examine Chinese new immigrants' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. Achievement serves as one of the components in

Dornyei's framework—the sub-component of self-confidence under the learner's level (see Table 13).

One limitation which can be detected from Atkinson's theory is that he placed little concern on environmental variables in which relation to motivation is close. Environmental variables include peer, course, teachers, family and culture and are of great influence on students' motivation to learn. Among them, cultural and parental influences are of less concern to researchers when investigating motivation to learn. The importance of including cultural and parental influence will be discussed in later sections.

Underlying Atkinson's achievement theory, several researchers have also subsequently developed different theories and approaches in various perspectives.

Cognition and motivation are closely related as Appley (1990) indicated and there is a continuous interaction between motivation and cognition; the two processes cannot be distinguished from each other. Thoughts, goals, expectations, perceptions, values, expectations and feelings become the focus of motivation studies in the hands of cognitive theorists like Brown (1986), Greene (1985), Locke and Latham (1990), goal-orientation theory (Ames, 1992) and Weiner (1979, 1985).

Goal theory developed by Ames (1992) is an interesting motivational theory because it embraces the importance of both psychological impact on external

learning behaviour and the social importance derived from psychological processes. Ames developed goal theory and explained the two main achievement goal orientations which affect learners' learning behaviour. They are mastery orientation (task-involvement or learner goals) and performance orientation (ego-involvement goals) in goal-orientation theory. Students with a mastery orientation focus on their own progress in mastering skills and knowledge, and they define success in those terms. A performance orientation represents the belief that the purpose of achieving is the demonstration of ability. Students with performance goal orientation focus on appearing competent, often in comparison to others, and define success accordingly. Studies of students' goal orientations generally find that the adoption of task goals is associated with more adaptive patterns of learning than is the adoption of ability goals, including the use of more effective cognitive strategies, a willingness to seek help when it is needed, a greater tendency to engage in challenging tasks, and more positive feelings about school and oneself as a learner (Anderman & Maehr, 1994; Ryan, Hicks & Midgley, 1997). Ames (1990) argued that mastery goals are superior to performance goals in that they are associated with a preference for challenging work, an intrinsic interest in learning activities and positive attitudes towards learning.

Goal theories can successfully apply to groups of low-achievers. Not only can this study examine their motivational pattern to learn and its relationship to learners' strategies, this study also sees how other social factors like "group cohesion" and "direct socialisation" under Dornyei's framework affect students'

motivation to learn especially when the new immigrant students are hoping to integrate with the dominant culture.

Another psychologist Weiner also developed motivation theory assuming that understanding is the basic spring of action, his attribution theory linked behaviour to expectation, considering the role of emotions as a motivator. It therefore sees motivation as representing the interaction between expectations and the value attached to those expected outcomes. Attributional approach assumed that humans are motivated to attain a causal understanding of the reasons why an event has occurred.

Attribution theory advocates that students' perception of their educational experiences generally influences their motivation more than the actual, objective reality of those experiences. Weiner (1985) believed that students' beliefs about the reasons for their success will determine if this assumption is true; students' attribution for failure are also important influences in motivation. When students have a history of failure in school, it is particularly difficult for them to sustain the motivation to keep trying. Students who believe that their poor performance is caused by factors out of their control are unlikely to see any reason to hope for an improvement. In contrast, if students attribute their poor performance to a lack of important skills or to poor study habits, they are more likely to persist in the future. The implications for teachers revolve around the importance of understanding what students believe about their academic performance.

This theory applies to the NAHK students' learning English in Hong Kong. Students tend to stop trying if they have a history of failing English tests and examinations in the past. However, if they attribute their poor performance to factors within their control, it is unlikely that they will give up learning. Therefore, it is important for teachers to communicate a range of attitudes about whether ability is fixed or modifiable and their expectations for individual students through their instructional practices. Students' causal attributions can be changed by manipulating variables in the classroom environment and setting. Hence, it is important to investigate NAHK students' motivation pattern so as to draw implications for instructional practices and learning facilitation.

Apart from Weiner's (1979) theory, which assumes learners' past successes and failures in learning are the determinants of their learning behaviours, several related theories have also been developed. The first one is self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1993) which assumes that learners' sense of efficacy on their own judgment of their abilities and competence will determine their activities attempted, the level of difficulties and amount of effort expended.

The other related theory is self-worth theory (Covington, 1992) which assumes learners may withhold effort in and attempt to maintain their self-esteem and save face. Or in contrast, they may try to hide their effort they expend on achieving one task in order to make others think they have high ability. The motivational components of the above theories are the components "self-confidence" and "expectancy of success" in Dornyei's framework. (see Table 13) which means psychological motivational approaches are considered too

narrow to examine such complicated constructs because classroom setting is more complicated as students do face tasks proactively under different contextual learning environment and factors. A thorough conceptual framework is therefore very much needed to examine students' motivational pattern and this is one of the purposes of this study.

Also, Covington's self-worth theory (1992) is exceptionally suitable to describe a strategy by Chinese learners as face saving is a common strategy to maintain one's worth. In Chinese culture, very often, academic attainment and accomplishment is equated to human value. Therefore, this study intends to investigate if face-saving is one of the factors affecting their motivation to learn. Implications for teaching and learning can be drawn to help NAHK students not only to adjust better but also learn better.

Another theory that is closely related to Dornyei's model is Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory (1985). Self-determination theory describes students as having three categories: needing a sense of competence, of relatedness to others, and of autonomy. Competence involves understanding how to, and believing that one can achieve various outcomes. Relatedness involves developing satisfactory connections to others in one's social group. Autonomy involves initiating and regulating one's own actions. These three factors carry the same characteristics of "need of achievement", "authority type (autonomy-supporting)" and interestingly, a social factor—"group cohesion".

Most of the research in self-determination theory focuses on the last of these three needs. Within the classroom, autonomy needs could be addressed through allowing some student choice and input on classroom decision making. For young adolescent students, with their increased cognitive abilities and developing sense of identity, a sense of autonomy may be particularly important. Students at this stage may want to be included in decision making and to have some sense of control over their activities. This may apply to the case of NAHK students, of whom the age group is between 13 to 21.

One can see the above theories have started to involve socio-cultural elements in motivational studies and it is hard to distinguish whether theories developed should be categorised as a psychological approach or socio-contextual approach. However, the above theories primarily focus on the task difficulty and its relations to individual's ability and expectancy of success. There seems to be ignorance about the value of the task and whether an individual would like to do it. Value also is an important level under Dornyei's framework. Therefore, theories regarding value of one set, including the very prominent scholars Gardner and Lambert's work and Eccles and Wigfield, will be discussed in the following section.

Gardner and Lambert's Socio-Educational model has been considered as one of the most prominent theories in motivation studies and it is one of the most significant models in developing motivation and language learning. Dornyei (1994: 519) commented that "the most significant milestone in the history of L2 motivation research is Gardner and Lambert's discovery that success is a

function of the learners' attitude toward the linguistic-cultural community of the target language, thus adding a social dimension to the study of motivation to learn an L2...By combining motivation theory with social psychological theory, the model of L2 motivation that Gardner and Lambert developed was much more elaborated and advanced than many contemporary mainstream psychological models of motivation in that it was empirically testable and did indeed explain a considerable amount of variance in student motivation and achievement.”

Gardner (1996) describes two distinct perspectives about motivation. The first is motivation as an element of an internal attribute. The second is motivation as an external attribute, i.e. motivation can be created by external force or reward. A hybrid perspective is that motivation can be an internal attribute and, at the same time, the result of an external force (Gardner, 1996). In the socio-educational model, motivation has most frequently been characterised into two orientations (Gardner, 1985). They are intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientation.

Intrinsic orientation refers to reasons for L2 learning that are derived from one's inherent pleasure and interest in the activity; the activity is undertaken because of the spontaneous satisfaction that is associated with it. Extrinsic orientations refer to reasons that are instrumental not from the inherent interest in the activity. Gardner (1996) however argued that motivation must be a characteristic of the individual and that it cannot be created out of nothing by an external force. An external force can arouse motivation, as when a teacher attempts to motivate students. The potential to be motivated must already exist and be a

property of the student in order for a particular pedagogical technique to be effective. As Gardner (1996:12) said “you can’t motivate a rock”.

Gardner’s theory brought significant influence to the development of motivation theories and approaches in the following decades and possibly generations to come. In the context of the NAHK students, Gardner’s extrinsic and intrinsic motivational constructs are appropriate to have this group of students be tested in order to evaluate their motivation to learn English in the Hong Kong setting. Gardner’s motivational construct will not be used as the sole framework to examine their motivation but as one of the very important motivational dimensions in this study. Gardner and Lambert’s socio-educational model on value is equivalent to “instrumental motivational subsystem” and “integrative motivational subsystem” in Dornyei’s framework,

Eccles and Wigfield (1995) further developed a comprehensive model of task values. They are attainment value; intrinsic value, extrinsic utility value and cost. Intrinsic and extrinsic values are equivalent to Gardner and Lambert’s instrumental and integrative motivational orientation which, again, echo Dornyei’s model’s language level (see table 13).

Attainment value and cost are newly added upon Gardner and Lambert’s S-E model. According to Eccles and Wigfield, attainment value refers to personal importance of achieving the task successfully, while cost refers to negative value components like effort and time and other emotional costs like fear of failure and anxiety.

According to Eccles and Wigfield’s theory, there are four main sources that affect students’ motivation to learn. The dimensions and sources of motivation are summarised in Table 9.

Table 9 *Dimensions of motivational sources (cited from Skehan, 1989)*

	Within the learning context	The result of learning
Outside the individual	Materials Teaching	Constraints Rewards
Inside the individual	Success	Goals

The four sources of motivation can be arranged as in the above table. The upper row covers influences upon students’ motivation which may be manipulated by external factors. These influences could be the use of materials and activities with greater inherent interest, or the involvement of more inspiring and stimulating teachers. They could also involve the use of frequent tests and examinations, or the provision of reward for learning. In contrast, the lower row emphasises the role of the individual. Within the learning context, this concerns the success that is achieved, and the effects this has on motivational levels. Outside the learning context, this study focuses more on the goals that the learner may have to sustain the efforts required for learning.

Based on Eccles and Wigfield's theory, it is obvious that factors outside the individuals have been taken into account to examine motivation to learn.

Materials and teaching are the factors "teacher-specific motivational components" categorised by Dornyei.

Both Gardner and Lambert's (1994), Eccles and Wigfield's (1995) theories have interestingly integrated traditional motivation theories with social perspectives and elements. This was a breakthrough for motivation studies. However, social influence is very much individual and can not be generalised under several components because students of different groups carry different social context and complexity. Those social elements included in the theories have not been given specific details describing how and which factor or element has a stronger role in influencing students' motivation to learn. Theories of this kind still therefore are advised to be tested under different social groups in different settings. Therefore, this study intended to use a more thorough motivational framework to investigate motivation to learn English of the NAHK students' in Hong Kong in the hope that implications for teaching and learning of a specific group of learners in a particular context can be drawn.

Chapter 3

Literature Review—

Motivation on L2 learning

This chapter will...

- *explain the importance of motivation in L2 learning;*
- *explore socio-cultural and contextual approaches;*
- *explain the modification of Dornyei's motivational framework; and*
- *discuss Chinese students' learning motivation.*

Based on the discussion of the previous chapter, the above mentioned major motivational approaches lay the very foundation of socio-cultural and contextual motivation approaches which leads to the adaptation of Dornyei's motivation framework in this study. However, it is also important to note the significance of motivation in L2 learning and understand previous studies done on investigating Chinese students' learning motivation.

3.1 Importance of Motivation in L2 Learning

The importance of motivation in L2 learning is self-evident and it is a dominant concern to all teachers and students. Motivation interacts with a number of personal and social factors, which affect second language learning. Interaction

between motivation and number of social factors is the central focus of this study. The socio-cultural and contextual approaches will be discussed in the following section.

Motivation is also considered as a determining factor in achieving a second or foreign language and maintaining and developing students' motivation is essential in language learning and teaching (Gardner, 1992). Gardner and Lambert (1972) emphasised that, although language aptitude accounts for learner's achievement to a great extent, motivational factors can override the aptitude factors. Motivation plays an important role in L2 learning because motivation can influence what, when and how one learns. That is, motivation determines the strategies used to achieve these goals, the effort put into learning, and one's ability to sustain that effort. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) suggested that motivation is the most crucial factor in determining university students' learning strategies. Littlewood (1996:53) indicated, "Motivation is the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks on a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and how long he perseveres."

Lastly, motivation can also serve as an indicator for assessment purposes. With the advances of developments in motivation researches, motivation can be given a central role in evaluating the quality of education, particularly when considering students with different cultural backgrounds, abilities and attainment levels. It is widely believed that students with learning difficulties are more likely to display motivational problems than educationally more successful pupils (Galloway et al. 1998). As Richards (1993) indicated, a sense of personal

control and degree of satisfaction serve as the main factors which determine high language attainment. Motivation leads learners to take actions, which in turn leads to better language proficiency or attainment.

3.2 Socio-cultural and contextual approaches

As discussed in the previous chapter, it is known that motivation is a concept that has undergone several major changes with the development of psychological theories in terms of learning behaviour. With the changing structure and nature of the Hong Kong population, NAHK students have been playing a significant role in affecting the setting of Hong Kong teaching and learning. When investigating NAHK students' motivation pattern, one has to understand the major theories on motivational studies in attempt to have a better understanding of how this group of students behave.

The theories and approaches discussed in the previous chapter mainly focus on studying the psychological aspects of motivation whereas social factors should also be taken into account. When examining L2 learning motivation, one must consider its socio-cultural context which has been discussed in the first part of this chapter. Since the 1990s, researchers called for opening of the agenda regarding motivational construct in L2 learning (see Crookes & Schmidt 1991; Skehan 1991; Oxford & Shearin 1994; Dornyei 1994). Preliminary evidence has emerged in recent research, which not only demonstrates the relevance of the new motivational construct in language learning, but also incorporates new elements into the existing theoretical frameworks.

Motivation researches in education are based on interrelated cognitions of causal aspirations, efficacy and control beliefs, helplessness and thought about goals one strives for. These interrelated cognitions mainly include research concentrations in attribution, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, self-determination, interest, subjective task values, goal orientations and self-regulation (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Locke and Lathan, 1990; Ames, 1992; Covington, 1992; Bandura, 1993; Eccles and Wigfield, 1995). Although researchers in these fields tend to emphasise a particular dimension of motivation over another, motivation, in a general sense, is often conceptualised as intra-psychic states, personal traits or beliefs and attitudes, residing internally within a self-system. Research in these fields are effective in identifying generalised principles that guide and predict students' learning motivation (Dornyei, 1994). It is believed that these generalised principles are context –free and can apply to diverse learning contexts.

Nevertheless, the strength of these research fields also carries its weakness. Researches in these fields are skilful in developing a general picture of how motivation can be predicted. These researches, however, fail to capture the dynamic and fluidity of motivation in a specific situation. In addition, researches should also pay attention to the notion that the individual is a unique psychological entity and each system within different contexts can be different (Dornyei, 1994).

Since the 1960s, there has been a tremendous effort in trying to understand students' motivation from an external perspective. The external environments may range widely, varying from the physical setting to the school culture. Generally speaking, these researches all intended to conceptualise what factors indeed affect students' motivation to learn. For example, Ames (1984) studied classroom structures (cooperative, competitive and individualistic) that might affect students' learning patterns and goals. In the 1990s, Ames (1992) and Blumenfeld (1992) respectively developed goal orientation theory. They advocated the development of mastery learning environment so as to facilitate the development of adaptive and mastery learning goals among students. Self-determination theorists like Ryan, Connell & Deci (1985) and Skinner & Belmont (1993) also singled out environmental variables like support for autonomy, support of competence and support of care and warmth which attribute to the positive learning motivation of a learner and facilitate the development of students' autonomy.

Variables affecting motivation to learn are of no doubt important. Gardner proposed an important framework for investigating motivation with socio-cultural factors. Richard Clement's inserted an element of linguistic self-confidence. Others such as Dickonson, Schumamm, Giles and Byrne all together added additional elements on the development of socio-cultural approaches of motivational studies. These major works which relate to socio-cultural perspective, will be introduced and explained in the following section.

- **The beginning of socio-cultural factor**

Integrative motive refers to an integrative orientation that refers to learners' interest, desire, effort and attitudes towards learning a foreign language. That is, as Gardner (1996:12) said "you can't motivate a rock". Tremblay and Gardner (1995) extended Gardner's social-psychological construct by inserting new elements from expectancy-value and goal theories. This extended framework suggests language attitudes affects motivational behaviour which determines achievements.

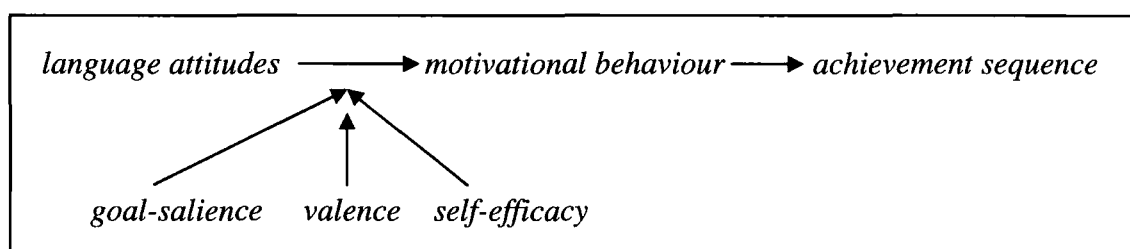


Figure 2 Tremblay and Gardner's extended L2 motivation model

There are three mediating variables between variables and behaviour. They are goal salience, valence and self-efficacy. Goal salience refers to goal specificity and goal frequency. Valence refers to desire and attitude to learn a second language, while self-efficacy refers to performance expectancy, second language anxiety and second language class anxiety. This model may not be primarily socio-cultural based, but it has integrated socio-cultural factors in measuring learners' motivation to learn a foreign language.

- **Self-confidence**

Another socio-psychological model that has received much attention is Richard Clement's (1980) concept of linguistic self-confidence. Linguistic self-confidence proposed by Clement is a socially defined construct. Clement and his colleagues believe linguistic self-confidence and self-efficacy play a central role in determining language acquisition. Self-confidence refers to the belief a person has about his ability to perform and accomplish a task while self-efficacy is task-specific. Clement has tested the interrelationship between social contextual variables, attitudinal motivational factors, self-confidence and second language acquisition or acculturation processes. Self-confidence has similarities with Eccles and Wigfield's self-efficacy theory discussed above. However, self-efficacy is more for achieving specific tasks while linguistic self-confidence is more for a general perception of one's coping potential, relevant to a range of tasks and subject domains. Clement describes linguistic self-confidence as a powerful mediating process in multi ethnic settings that affects a person's motivation to learn and use the language of another speech community. When different language communities live together, the quality and quantity between the members will be a major motivational factor in learning the other community's language, determining future desire for intercultural communication and the extent of identification with the L2 group. Therefore, in Clement's view, linguistic self-confidence is primarily a socially defined construct although self-confidence has also a cognitive component, the perceived L2 proficiency. Recently, Clement *et al.* (1994) have extended the applicability of the self-confidence construct by showing that it is also a

significant motivational subsystem in foreign language learning situations, in which there is little direct contact with members of the L2 community but considerable indirect contact with the L2 culture through the media, for example, as is the case with world languages such as English.

- **Affect**

Schumann (1998) stresses the importance of affect in L2 learning situations. Stimulus appraisal is the key constituent in his theory. According to his model, the brain evaluates the environmental and social stimuli it receives and this leads to an emotional and consequently to a behavioural response. Schumann postulates five dimensions along which stimulus appraisals are made. They are novelty (degree of unexpectedness/familiarity), pleasantness (attractiveness), goal/need significance, (whether the individual expects to be able to cope with the event), and coping potential and self and social image (whether the event is compatible with social norms and the individual's self-concept). Schumann believes learners' external behaviours are the responses of environmental and social stimuli made.

- **Self-image and social group**

The intergroup model, suggested by Giles and Byrne (1982), emphasises the individual's self-concept as one of the sources to develop or maintain a positive self-image. Giles and Byrne adopted social identification theory as their guiding framework because social identity has an important bearing on one's personal

attitudes, values and aspirations, as well as on one's ethnolinguistic behaviours. Giles and Byrne proposed that it was also associated with a number of important linguistic processes and practices with regard to L2 attainment, that is, they related the learners' motivation to acquire native-like linguistic competence in the L2 to their sense of identification with the linguistic ingroup and their perception of the relationships between linguistic in- and out-groups (Kelly *et al.*, 1993).

- **Social distance**

Chinese is often described as a culture where collectivism is emphasised (e.g. Hofstede, 1980). This is supported by quite a number of different studies (e.g. Bond, Leung and Wan 1982a, Leung and Bond, 1984). Their results showed that the collectivistic Chinese in Hong Kong were more egalitarian in their allocation of extrinsic rewards than the individualistic Americans and that this ideology may greatly affect Chinese students' learning.

Schumann's (1978, 1986) acculturation theory examines the same kind of interethnic context as the intergroup model, and some of the propositions of the two frameworks overlap. However, the two key concepts Schumann uses to explain how the minority group acquires the dominant group's language – *social distance* and *psychological distance* – are rooted in a research tradition different from social identity theory. His primary concern is the process of acculturation, that is, the 'social and psychological integration of the learner with the target language group' (p.29). The theory is that social and psychological distance

between the language learner and the target language speakers is detrimental to the attainment of the target language. The learner will therefore acquire the L2 to a point that he or she is able to establish social and psychological contact with the dominant group. Thus, Schumann's focus on 'distance' can be seen as another attempt at introducing sufficiently dynamic concepts that can bridge the gap between the individualistic and societal perspectives in the study of L2 practices. Schumann's (1978, 1986) framework has clearly extended the intergroup typology by adding cognition and social situation.

- **Situated language identity**

The most situated, socio-contextual approach to understanding language behaviours in multicultural settings has been pursued by Richard Clement, Kim Noels and their associates in Canada. Their objective was to create the foundations of a 'situated identity theory', which can be seen as a follow-up to the work of Giles and his colleagues on ethnic identity and ethnolinguistic vitality. Clement and Noels (1992) accept the basic assumption of social identity theory that individuals seek to view themselves positively and that a positive image is determined socially. In settings where the language serves as an important dimension of group identity, the desire to maintain a positive social identity is strongly linked to the motivation of pursuing various linguistic practices. This means, in practical terms, that the individual is likely to identify with the group with their attempt to have linguistic assimilation into the majority group.

In the above section, major motivation theories and theories related to second language learning have been explained and evaluated. Based on the discussions, a table which summarises the major motivational theories and approaches has been created in this study in order to provide readers with an overview of the past literatures. The following table summarises all the above-mentioned motivational theories and approaches.

Table 10 *Summary of the main motivational theories*

Theory / Approach	Proposed by	Main concept:
Psychoanalytical theory	Freud (1926)	Human behaviour is driven by instinctual desires
Drive theory	Hull (1943)	Motivation is determined by drive, habit and incentive and it is affected by frustration, anxiety, conflict and despair
Achievement theory	Atkinson (1966)	Achievement behaviour as the result of emotional conflict between hopes for success and fears of failure.
Social learning theory	Rotter (1982)	Behaviour potential is determined by the expectancy of goal attainment and the value of goal or reinforcement.
Attribution theory	Weiner (1984, 1992)	Humans are motivated to attain a casual understanding of the reasons of why an event has occurred.
Self-efficacy theory	Bandura (1993)	Self-efficacy will determine what kind of tasks or activities an individual decides to attempt; how much efforts an individual will put in achieving the task, as well as how persistent that person will likely to demonstrate
Self-worth theory	Covington (1992)	Covington's self-worth theory primarily focuses on people's behaviour in maintaining personal value and worth

		especially in the context of competition or failures as the highest virtue of a human being is self-acceptance
Task value model	Eccles and Wigfield (1995)	Attainment value refers to personal importance of achieving the task successfully, while cost refers to negative value components like effort and time and other emotional costs like fear of failure and anxiety.
Socio-educational theory	Gardner and Lambert (1972)	Motivation has most frequently been characterised into intrinsic orientation and extrinsic orientations.
Goal-setting theory	Locke and Latham (1990)	Goal setting theory is similar to expectancy-value theory in the sense that individual believe they can achieve the goal (expectancy) and the goal is important for them (value).
Goal-orientation theory	Ames (1992)	Ames argued that mastery goals are superior to performance goals in that they are associated with a preference for challenging work, an intrinsic interest in learning activities and positive attitudes towards learning.
Extended Gardner's socio-educational theory	Tremblay and Gardner (1995)	This extended framework suggests language attitudes → motivational behaviour → achievement sequence
Self-determination	Deci and Ryan	Students as having three

theory	(1985)	categories: needing a sense of competence, of relatedness to others, and of autonomy.
Autonomy in motivation	Dickinson (1995)	Learning success and enhanced motivation is conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning, being able to control their own learning and perceiving that their learning successes and failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control
Linguistics self-confidence theory	Clement (1980)	Self-confidence refers to the belief a person has about his ability to perform and accomplish a task while self-efficacy is task-specific
Neurobiological model	Schumann (1998)	The brain evaluates the environmental stimuli it receives and this leads to an emotional and consequently to a behavioural response
Inter-group model	Giles and Byrne (1982)	The central concept underlying the model is the individual's self-concept, and the major motivating force is one of developing or maintaining a positive self-image. They related the learners' motivation to acquire native-like linguistic competence in the L2 to their sense of identification with the

		linguistic in-group and their perception of the relationships between linguistic in- and out-groups
Acculturation theory	Schumann (1978, 1986)	Social and psychological integration of the learner with the target language group
Situated identity theory	Clement & Norton (1992)	The individual is likely to identify with the group with the greatest ethnolinguistic vitality, and this identification may lead to linguistic assimilation into the majority group or integration with the minority group.

The above theories specifically deal with certain factors related to motivation and human behaviour. However, there have been calls for more integrative motivational approaches to fill the growing gap between these main theories. Crookes and Schmidt, Oxford and Shearin (1994, 1996), Williams and Burden (1997) and Dornyei (1994) are the leading socio-psychological approaches.

- **Crookes and Schmidt's theory**

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) state that there are four levels of motivational and motivated learning. They are micro-level, classroom level, syllabus/curriculum level and extracurricular level. The micro-level deals with the motivation/attention interface, that is, with motivational effects on the cognitive processing of L2 stimuli. The classroom level deals with techniques and activities in motivational terms, drawing on Keller's conceptualisation. At the

syllabus/curriculum level content, decisions based on needs analysis come into play. Lastly, the extracurricular level concerns informal, out-of-class and long-term factors, and 'continuing motivation'. Crookes and Schmidt's theory sees school, classroom and peer group as the factors affecting motivation to learn L2. However, this categorisation has over-simplified the social and classroom settings and has not taken certain psychological and cultural factors into account; a more comprehensible approach to investigate NAHK students' motivation is needed.

- **Oxford and Shearin's approach**

Oxford and Shearin (1994, 1996) highlight explicitly the growing gap between L2 motivation theories and the variety of emerging concepts in mainstream motivational psychology, and call explicitly for an expansion of the social psychological approach. Therefore, the authors surveyed a wide range of motivation constructs in several branches of psychology (industrial, educational, cognitive developmental and sociocultural) in order to develop a L2 model that would have an increased explanatory power in diverse learning contexts. The new perspective they present is very broad indeed; it covers needs theories; expectancy-value theories; equity theories; reinforcement theories; social cognition goal theory; achievement goal theory; Piaget's cognitive developmental theory and Vygotsky's sociocultural theory.

However, Oxford and Shearin's approach only combined the main socio-cultural motivational theories in a very loose way; they did not explain the relationship among those factors. Therefore, the theoretical approach adopted in this study will bridge this gap.

- **Williams and Burden's social constructivist model**

Williams and Burden's (1997) work is one of the most influential motivational models to investigate the learners' motivational pattern. The following table shows their framework. William and Burden thought that motivation and learning behaviours are influenced by two main factors. They are internal and external. Under internal factors, they proposed that there are nine factors affecting learners' motivation. They are (1) intrinsic interest in the activity, like arousal of curiosity and optimal degree of challenge. (2) Perceived value of the activity which includes personal relevance, anticipated value of outcomes and intrinsic value attributed to the activity. (3) Sense of agency, like locus of causality, locus of control with regard to process and outcomes, and ability to set appropriate goals. (4) Mastery, like feelings of competence, awareness of development skills and mastery in chosen area and self-efficacy. (5) Self-concept which includes realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required, personal definitions and judgments of success and failure, self-worth concern and learned helplessness. (6) Attitudes such as to language learning in general, to the target language and to the target language community (7) Other affective states like confidence and anxiety. (8) Developmental age and stage (9) Gender.

For external factors, Williams and Burden suggested that there are four factors affecting motivation to learn: (1) Significant others like parents, teachers and peers. (2) The nature of interaction with significant others like mediated learning experiences and the nature amount of feedback rewards, the nature and amount of appropriate praise, and punishment and sanctions. (3) The learning environment like comfort, resources, time of day, week and year, sizes of class and school and class and school ethos. (4) The broader context like wider family networks, the local education system, conflicting interests, cultural norms and societal expectations and attitudes.

Table 11 *William and Burden’s framework of L2 motivation (1997)*

Internal factors	External factors
Intrinsic interest of activity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arousal of curiosity • Optimal degree of challenge 	Significant others: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents • Teachers • Peers
Perceived value of activity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal relevance • Anticipated value of outcomes • Intrinsic value attributed to the activity 	The nature of interaction with significant others: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mediated learning experiences • The nature and amount of feedback rewards • The nature and amount of appropriate praise • Punishments, sanctions
Sense of agency: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Locus of causality • Locus of control with regard to process and outcomes 	The learning environment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comfort • Resources • Time of day, week, year

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to set appropriate goals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Size of class and school • Class and school ethos
<p>Mastery:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feelings of competence • Awareness of developing skills and mastery in chosen area • Self-efficacy 	<p>The broader context:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wider family networks • The local education system • Conflicting interests • Cultural norms • Societal expectations and attitudes
<p>Self-concept:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required • Personal definitions and judgments of success and failure • Self-worth concern • Learned helplessness 	
<p>Attitudes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To language learning in general • To the target language • To the target language community and culture 	
<p>Other affective states:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confidence • Anxiety, fear 	
Developmental age and stage	
Gender	

Williams and Burden's (1997) work is not surprisingly influential but it has presented two motivational challenges. They are context and time.

For contextual challenge, motivational theories should adopt an individualistic approach with regard to which individual context influences individual behaviour. Human action is always embedded in a number of physical and psychological contexts, which affect a person's external behaviour and internal cognition. Contextual influences stemming from socio-cultural environment can hardly be traced from Williams and Burden's model. This is possibly a common challenge of most of the motivational studies and psychological studies rather than being just Williams and Burden's individual challenge with regard to their model. The whole approach is rooted in the social constructivist tradition. In Williams and Burden's model, all factors are divided into two main categories—external and internal factors. This categorisation has boldly categorised motivational components into two main factors—external and internal. However, in many cases, internal factors intertwine with external factors. Even, components under internal factors also intertwine with each other. Under Williams and Burden's model, this is an over simplification of the motivational process and emphasises the complexity of the motivational process. Therefore, the conceptual framework developed for this study intends to fill the gap.

Time is another challenge for Williams and Burden's model. Very often, motivation evolves gradually and it involves processes like planning, goal setting, tasks generating, action controlling, efficacy perceiving and outcome predicting. These processes also relate to a wide range of motives. Ignoring

“time” can result in contradictory results even if two theories are equally valid simply because they refer to different time phases. This argument applies to the adoption of Dornyei’s model rather than Williams and Burden’s model in this study to investigate NAHK students’ motivation to learn English. When comparing Dornyei’s and Williams and Burden’s, one can see Williams and Burden’s model has taken as much internal and external factors to examine learning motivation which indeed is influential in motivational study. However, their model involves factors affecting motivation to learn at different time phases. However, Dornyei’s model is the appropriate model for this study because Dornyei’s model can be used to investigate learners’ motivation to learn at *one* particular time phase. “Timing” can be a determining element which affects the validity of this study, as this study investigates NAHK students’ motivation to learn English. They are the new immigrants from Mainland China who have only resided in Hong Kong for not more than seven years counting from the time they were studied and interviewed. Therefore, the framework of Dornyei is more appropriate to this study.

● **Dornyei’s extended framework**

Based on the above literature, one can see motivation can be examined and investigated by using different approaches. Behaviourists like Gagne and Driscoll (1988) argued that environmental factors and situational variables affect human’s motivation and its behaviour. Learning can be studied by investigating human behaviour and its consequences in the environment. Students’ level of motivation can be measured by the amount of time learners engage in learning.

The development of motivation research has changed dramatically. As Eccles, Wigfield and Schiefele (1998) summarised, motivation research has gone from biologically based drive perspective to behavioural-mechanistic perspective and then to cognitive-mediational/constructivist perspective. In the 20th century, the importance of affect and less conscious processes has become the central theme. Researchers started to become interested in the contextual influences on motivation. Therefore, a more complex and multicontextual framework has been adopted. However, critics of behaviourists like Galloway *et al.* (1998) believe that using a behavioural approach to investigate learning may overlook how students and teachers interact in the classroom. Dornyei's (1994) may be able to fill in the gap of the previous researches. Dornyei's work has been found the most comprehensive though certain contextual factors have still been ignored and overlooked. Therefore this study will adopt Dornyei's motivational framework to evaluate this target group of students. However two additional factors are to be merged into Dornyei's major work.

Dornyei's work has been considered as one of the most influential contemporary motivational constructs in L2. This model (Dornyei, 1994) consists of three levels of motivation, they are language level, learner level and learning situation level. Language level consists of two subsystems. They are integrative motivational system and instrumental motivational system. The learner level involves individual characteristics that learners have in their learning process. They include needs for achievement and self-confidence (anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attributions and self efficacy). The learning situation level is associated with (1) course-specific motivation, which refers to syllabus, the

teaching materials, teaching methods and learning tasks. (2) teacher-specific motivation which concerns the motivational impact of the teacher's personality (affiliative motive), behaviour (direct socialization of motivation like modelling, task presentation, and feedback) and teaching style (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting) (3) group-specific motivation which includes goal-orientedness, group cohesiveness, classroom goal structure, norm and reward system. (4) course-specific motivation which is related to learners' interest in the course, relevance of the course to student's needs, expectancy of success and satisfaction student has in the outcome.

Table 12 *Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation (Dornyei, 1994)*

Language Level	Integrative motivational subsystem
	Instrumental motivational subsystem
Learner Level	Need for achievement
	Self-confidence
	*Language use anxiety
	*Perceived L2 Competence
	*Casual attributions
	*Self-efficacy
Learning Situation Level	
<i>Course-specific Motivation Components</i>	Interest (in the course)
	Relevance (of the course to one's needs)
	Expectancy (of success)
	Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
<i>Teacher-Specific Motivational components</i>	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)
	Authority type (autonomy-supporting)
	Direct Socialization of Motivation
	*Modelling
	*Task Presentation
	*Feedback
<i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientations
	Norm & Reward System
	Group Cohesion
	Classroom Goal Structure

According to Dornyei, course-specific motivational components are related to the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching methods and the learning tasks. Teacher specific motivational components refers to teachers' behaviour, personality and teaching style while group-specific motivational components relates to group's goal orientations, cohesiveness, norm and reward system and classroom goal structure.

Based on the review of the above motivational theories, one can conclude that there are direct relationships between Dornyei's motivational framework and each of the motivational components aforementioned. The following table attempts to show readers the main motivational theories related to Dornyei's conceptual framework.

Table 13 *Main motivational theories related to Dornyei’s conceptual framework*

Dornyei’s framework		Related motivation theories/approaches
Language Level	Integrative motivational subsystem	Gardner & Lambert (1972); Ames(1984);
	Instrumental motivational subsystem	Lockes & Latham (1990) Eccles & Wigfield (1995); Gardner & Tremblay (1995); Schumann (1998)
Learner Level	Need for achievement	Freud (1926); Hull (1943); Deci & Ryan (1985); Crookes & Schmidt (1991)— micro-level
	Self-confidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language use anxiety • Perceived L2 competence • Casual attributions • Self-efficacy 	Weiner (1973); Atkinson (1974); Clement (1980); Rotter (1982); Covington (1992); Bandura (1993); Schumann (1998)
Learning Situation Level		
<i>Course-specific Motivation Components</i>	Interest (in the course)	Crookes & Schmidt (1991) – curriculum-level
	Relevance (of the course to one’s needs)	

	Expectancy (of success)	Atkinson (1974); Rotter (1982); Weiner (1984)
	Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)	
<i>Teacher-Specific Motivational components</i>		Crookes & Schmidt (1991) – classroom-level Eccles and Wigfield (1995)
	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)	
	Authority type (autonomy-supporting)	Deci & Ryan (1985); Dickonson (1995); Schumann (1998)
	Direct Socialization of Motivation	
	*Modeling	
	*Task Presentation	
	*Feedback	
<i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientations	Ames (1984); Locke & Latham (1990)
	Norm & Reward System	
	Group Cohesion	Clement <i>et al.</i> (1980); Giles & Byrne (1982); Deci & Ryan (1985)
	Classroom Goal Structure	Deci & Ryan (1985); Dickonson (1995); Crookes & Schmidt (1991) – classroom-level

Dornyei's framework is comprehensive and it embraces a broad range of theories . He has combined most of the major motivational theories into his model under different social levels. Dornyei's model fills the gaps of Oxford and Shearin and Williams and Burden. However, there are two important criteria which have not yet been sufficiently recognised—*(1) the role of parents played in students' L2 learning motivation (2) the role culture played in influencing L2 learning motivation*. Not only does this study try to explore the impact parents' role brings onto L2 learning motivation, but also elicits the importance of cultural factors in the framework in the hope that Dornyei's model can be modified and tested with the target group of this study.

3.3 Modification of Dornyei's motivational framework

After understanding aspects of the general Chinese learners' motivation, it is believed that no motivational theories are so far generalisable and can be applied to all contexts; cultural and contextual elements must be taken into account when one intends to investigate NAHK students' motivational pattern to learn. Therefore this thesis intends to modify Dornyei's model (1994) by adding two additional socio-cultural elements to examine NAHK students' motivation to learn English. The first one is socio-cultural factors and the second component is parental influence.

3.3.1 Addition of Cultural component to Dornyei's Framework

Culture plays an important role in determining how students perceive their own identity in a foreign environment which leads to their language learning strategies and very often, they are the factors which determine the success of language learning, as mentioned in an earlier section. For example, one can see many researches in fact identify the roles of social integration and cultural differences in acquiring a second language. They are Deci & Ryan (1985); Giles & Byrne (1982); Schumann (1978, 1986), Clement *et al.* (1992) and Niles (1995).

Differences in cultural values (Stevenson, et al., 1990), beliefs (Hess, Chang, & McDevitt, 1987; Holloway & Hess, 1990), and practices (Wlodkoswki & Jaynes, 1990; Hess & Azuma, 1991; Stevenson & Stigler, 1992; Salili, 1995) have been the foci of many studies. These cultural values and practices are assumed to influence student motivation and subsequent achievement. It is therefore important to consider culture as one of the determining factors in this study and see how culture affects NAAK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

In order to add an additional motivational component to Dornyei's framework, one will have to understand why such a component has been missed out from the original framework. It is believed the primary reason is the complexity of "culture" itself. As Kaplan & Manners pointed out (1972, cited in Byram, 1989) culture is admittedly an all-embracing term. Many investigators suggest that it is too all-embracing to be useful as an analytical tool. The concept of culture itself

is hard to define, especially in a way that is suitable for all disciplines that study this concept. Thus, academicians have defined this concept in so many different ways that no consensus has emerged, Antonio (1988) mentioned the idea that culture is one of these words for which it is impossible to have a single definition, accordingly there are as many meanings for this word as people that use it. He added that although a concept of culture has been used in many studies as an independent variable, the lack of clarification of its precise content and experience shows that culture has been utilised as a residual variable rather than an independent one. To make motivation a sensible construct, one has to assume that there is an interaction among cultural, contextual and individual factors. Therefore this study does not consider cultural influence as a single factor which affects NAHK students' motivation to learn but sees it as integrated with other observable and quantifiable factors to assess how cultural differences affect their motivation to learn English (see table 21).

After mentioning the complexity of culture and the difficulties of integrating culture in measuring motivation, the question still needs to be answered: What is culture then? Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952: 124) after cataloguing 164 different definitions of culture, quote what seems to be the most comprehensive definition reflecting a consensus of definitions:

“Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of

traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of future action.”

Alder echoed Kroeber and Kluckhohn's definition. They listed the characteristics of culture. They believed culture is something shared by all members of some social groups and something that shapes behaviour or structures one's perception of the world. In their opinion, the cultural orientation of a society reflects a complex interaction of the values, attitudes and behaviours that are displayed by its members.

It is believed that Kroeber and Kluckhohn's definition of culture has two fundamental aspects related to language learning. One is the objective set by learners and the second is learners' ways of perceiving and responding to the language learning environment. That is, learners express culture through values they hold about language learning and the environment around them. These values in turn affect their attitudes about the form of behaviour considered most appropriate and effective in a given situation. It is assumed that the continually changing patterns of individual and group behaviour will eventually influence the society's culture, and the cycle begins again. Their relationships are shown below:

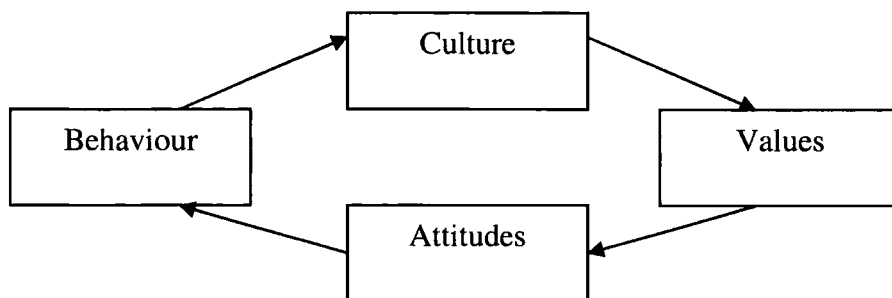


Figure 3 The influence of culture on behaviour

Why does culture play an important role in language learning motivation?

Studying culture is important in examining NAHK students' motivation to learn English because diversity exists not only between two different cultures but also within. A cultural orientation describes the attitudes of most of the people most of the time, not all the people all of the time. Within a single culture certain behaviour are obviously favoured and others repressed. This study would like to see if cultural differences draw different motivational patterns hence implications can be drawn in future teaching and learning practices.

The first importance culture placed on language learning motivation is that cultural differences expand learners' educational outcomes such as knowledge, views and relationship. Gurin (1999) found that students in diverse educational environments are more motivated and better able to participate in a heterogeneous and democratic learning environment. In his study, he found that students in diverse learning environments showed more engagement during university years in various forms of activities and with people from different backgrounds and cultures. Increasing communicative competence is exactly the purpose of learning a language. These effects continued after the students left

the school setting. By studying the interface of cultural differences and learning motivation, learners are the ultimate beneficiaries of the continuous education improvement.

However, cultural insensitivity from peers and teachers also pose threats to minority students of their dignity, confidence and motivation to learn, while simultaneously weakening or delaying their interdependence and self-sufficiency. Educators frequently aim to educate learners to be independent. Insensitivity to cultural differences may jeopardize learners' language learning process (Plata & Robertson, 1998). It is therefore, important to examine cultural influence on motivation to learn.

While diversity is multidimensional, learners' sense of being different, arising from peer-school-society discrepancy (Arunkumar, 1999), can alienate learners of culturally different backgrounds and reduce their participation in classroom and possibly language attainment. How can educators prevent these potential problems? This is the aim of this study.

Most previous studies aimed to study motivational differences between Western and Asians students (Yu & Yang, 1987; Schneider & Lee, 1990; Renshaw and Tietzel, 1994; Salili, 1995). However, these studies all studied motivational differences of the two ethnic groups in a general way. Culture not only differs from ethnicities, but also within the same ethnic group of different socio-economical backgrounds. Therefore, this study intended to investigate how

cultural differences from within the same ethnic group of different backgrounds affect motivational to learn English.

After justifying the addition of cultural component onto Dornyei’s framework, the following table shows a new face of Dornyei’s extended framework of language learning motivation.

Table 14 *Culture level added to Dornyei’s extended framework of language learning motivation*

Language Level	Integrative motivational subsystem
	Instrumental motivational subsystem
Learner Level	Need for achievement
	Self-confidence
	* Language use anxiety
	*Perceived L2 Competence
	*Casual attributions
	*Self-efficacy
Learning Situation Level	
<i>Course-specific Motivation Components</i>	Interest (in the course)
	Relevance (of the course to one’s needs)
	Expectancy (of success)
	Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
<i>Teacher-Specific Motivational components</i>	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)
	Authority type (autonomy-supporting)
	Direct Socialization of Motivation
	*Modelling
	*Task Presentation

	*Feedback
<i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientations
	Norm & Reward System
	Group Cohesion
	Classroom Goal Structure
<i>*^Culture-Specific Motivation Component</i>	Socio-cultural integration

* New motivation component added to Dornyei’s (2001) extended framework.
^ socio-cultural component, due to its abstractness, will be integrated with other motivational components when setting up questionnaire.

The questionnaire used in this study does not intend to evaluate cultural level on its own. Rather, this study integrates socio-cultural elements into different motivational levels. One question is set under each motivational level or component in the conceptual framework. The following table shows the questions integrated with the socio-cultural component.

Table 15 *Socio-cultural component on different motivational dimensions*

Motivation Dimension and Component	Sub-component	Question
Language Level		
	Integrative motivational subsystem	<i>I learn English because it helps me to learn Hong Kong culture better.</i>
	Instrumental motivational subsystem	<i>I learn English because I need English to adjust well in Hong Kong.</i>
Learner Level		
	Need for achievement	<i>Rather different from Mainland China, having a good standard of English is a must to be successful in Hong Kong.</i>
	Self-confidence	<i>I am not afraid of communicating with my Hong Kong classmates in English although my accent is different from theirs.</i>
Learning Situation Level		
<i>Course-specific motivational components</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Interest (in the course) ● Relevance (of the course to one's needs) ● Expectancy (of success) ● Satisfaction (one has in the outcome) 	<i>I have already adapted well and am feeling comfortable with the curriculum, examinations and classroom teaching in Hong Kong.</i>

<i>Teacher-Specific Motivational components</i>		<i>The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students help me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English.</i>
<i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientations	<i>Learning English is a key not to let people look down on me.</i>
	Norm & Reward System	<i>The reward system in Hong Kong helps me integrate better with the new learning environment.</i>
	Group Cohesion	<i>I want to learn better English so that I can integrate better with my friends in Hong Kong.</i>
	Classroom Goal Structure	<i>Doing projects and group work help me integrate better with my classmates in Hong Kong.</i>
<i>*Parent-Specific Motivation Components</i>		<i>Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong.</i>

****Questions integrated with cultural motivational element focusing on cultural adjustment from Mainland China to Hong Kong.**

3.3.2 Addition of parent-specific component onto Dornyei's framework

Dornyei's work is the most appropriate framework to examine second language learners' motivation. When examining Dornyei's model, apart from cultural-related factor as mentioned in the previous section of the literature review, it is also believed that parent-specific component under learning situation level has also to be integrated with Dornyei's current model. Epstein et al (1997) discussed how children learn and grow through three overlapping spheres of

influence: family, school and community and these three spheres must form a partnership to best meet the needs of the child. Researches have also indicated that family involvement improves facets of children's education such as motivation (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Brooks et al, 1997; Cotton & Wikeland, 2001). In a 1996 survey, teachers were asked to identify the biggest problem facing schools. The number one answer identified by teachers was lack of parental support (Langdon, 1997 cited in Nakagawa, 2000).

Interestingly, Dornyei (2001) also noted parental influence plays a large part in students' learning motivation in his own work although he does not include it as a component in his framework. This is especially true of Chinese families.

In traditional Chinese families, parents are the authority within the family unit. The important matters in a family, the crucial decisions, are usually made by the parents. Children's education, career, and marriage are seriously considered by their parents. Meanwhile, children are accustomed to listening to their parents' opinions and decisions. Some children like to share their opinions with their parents, especially the parents who are more liberal and westernised. The dependence of the Chinese adolescent on the family is increased by his lack of personal financial resources. Chinese parents tend to be protective of their children. Their children concentrate on their school studies. Therefore, one can be fairly sure of the important role that family plays in the NAHK students' learning English (add Bond 1986, 1996). Most parents of ESL learners also have high expectations for their children (Carrasquillo et al, 1996)

“Face” is also a crucial issue central to Chinese children’s education. According to Hu (1944: 45), there are two concepts of “face” in the context of Chinese culture. One is “*lien*” and the other is “*manzi*”. “*Lien*” represents the confidence of society in the integrity of ego’s moral character, the loss of which makes it impossible for him to function properly within the community” whereas “*manzi*” refers to a reputation achieved through getting on in life, through success and ostentation” (cited in Bond, 1986: 243). The concept of “*manzi*” is closely related to the academic emphasis Chinese parents put on their children. Chinese parents regard their children’s academic success as the glory to their family and ancestors. The same is true of Chinese children, they also regard academic success as having “*manzi*” in front of others.

“Face” is an especially important issue to Chinese parents in Hong Kong. Nowadays in Hong Kong, the central issue to Hong Kong parents is whether their children can get into a prestigious school. Parents in Hong Kong pave their way for their children to get into a good school by arranging all sorts of extra-curricular activities from Sunday to Saturday, moving to the neighbourhood where the prestigious schools are located so as to add “value” to their children in the hope that their children can become “all-rounded” and be admitted to the school they dream their children will go to. Hong Kong parents see their children’s academic success as their dreams. As Ho (1986) noted the strong connection between face and values is central to the Chinese culture.

Though Hong Kong parents are very concerned about their children’s schooling and education, there may be problems of parents of NAHK students who may

feel inadequate to be involved in their children's education for various reason (Moll, 1995). They may be struggling to lead fulfilling lives in a foreign society, they may be underemployed, or they may be under financial stress. Their lack of proficiency in English also may put them at a disadvantage. Whether these problems lead to demotivate their children to learn English is about to be investigated in this study.

According to the research to date (e.g. Douglas, 1967; Brophy, 1987, Wlodkosuki & Jaynes, 1990; Gottfield et al., 1994 & Eccles et al.1998), parental influence is one of the primary impacts on students' learning motivation. As Clark concludes, "Like effective school, effective families have a set of easy-to-identify characteristics. These cut across family income, education, and ethnic backgrounds...effective families display a number of positive attitudes and behaviours toward their children which help them to succeed in school and in life." (Wlodkoswki & Janynes, 1990)

Other researchers also reported the same conclusion—parental involvement has a significant positive impact on student language achievement (Eccles & Harold, 1993; Henderson et al, 1994; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Ma, 1999; Shumow & Miller, 2001). Henderson reviewed 66 studies, books, reports, and articles and demonstrated the positive connection between parental involvement of families and improved students' achievement.

Bloom (cited in Wlodkoswki & Jayne, 1990) remarked that parents appear to be the primary influence on the child's motivation to learn. He conducted in-depth

interviews with talented and very young professionals who were highly recognised in difficult, competitive fields. He found that the most common characteristic of their general education and subsequent achievement was enthusiastic parent involvement. Even when the accomplishment and expertise of these young people excluded their parents' direct involvement, they saw their parents' support as the main reference point reinforcing their goals as worthwhile and within their reach.

Clark (cited in Wlodkoswki & Jayne, 1990) also spent more than a decade studying well-motivated high achievers, at both the high school and grade school levels, who came from low-income families. His research led him to the conclusion that what makes the difference for such student is that they come from "effective family". He termed effective family as one with several characteristics, "family income, education and ethnic background."

As broadly claimed by McLeod (1992), the social context provided by the school and the home can also have an effect on students' beliefs. Parental influences on students' attitudes and perception revealed that 'parents' stereotypes interact with the sex of their child to directly influence the parents' belief's about the child's abilities. In turn, parents' beliefs about their child directly influence their child's self-perceptions and both the parents' stereotypes and the child's self-perceptions influence the child's performance.

Since family is of great importance to the development of an adolescent, it was found that NAHK children might suffer from certain family problems after they came to Hong Kong. Problems include lack of sufficient contact among family members since for some, one of their parents is still staying in China or their parents have long working hours in Hong Kong. These problems may lead to relationship problems among family members and lack of emotional support from parents; conflict and misunderstanding among family members may occur; financial and accommodation problems may also become acute.

(HKFWSIFSNAASSWS, 2000) Over 70% NAHK students found that their parents could not assist their school work (HKCA, 1996). This study aimed to investigate how much parental care and support influence NAHK students' motivation to learn English.

The component of *parent-specific motivation* added to Dornyei's model can be broken down into further constituents in the Hong Kong context:

- Education background—English proficiency level
- Financial support
- Affective encouragement

Education background refers to parents' proficiency in English and abilities in offering guidance to their children.

Financial support refers to technical support, provided by parents to facilitate their children's English learning, such as hiring a tutor, buying reference books or computer. A report (Mitchell, Collom & Gaskill, 2000) on students' achievement remarked that students who come from families with lower incomes have achievement rates which are commensurate with those from the wealthiest families.

Affective encouragement refers to the supportive family climate, like verbal encouragement to their children. Then, why is parental involvement important in learners' process of language acquisition? Several researchers have found that when children are reared by adults who engage them in frequent, caring conversation, the children demonstrate better cognitive, linguistic, social, and emotional development (Brown et al, 1997 citing "Proceeding", 1997; Matinez, 1981; National Institutes of Health, 1997). If parents see themselves as co-educators of their children along with the school, the academic and linguistic growth of students is significantly increased (Cummins, 1994). Tizard et al (1982) found that parents' involvement regardless of their language proficiency is a main factor improving students' language leaning attitude.

The following table shows a parent-specific motivational component added to Dornyei's conceptual framework, which is the conceptual framework of this study.

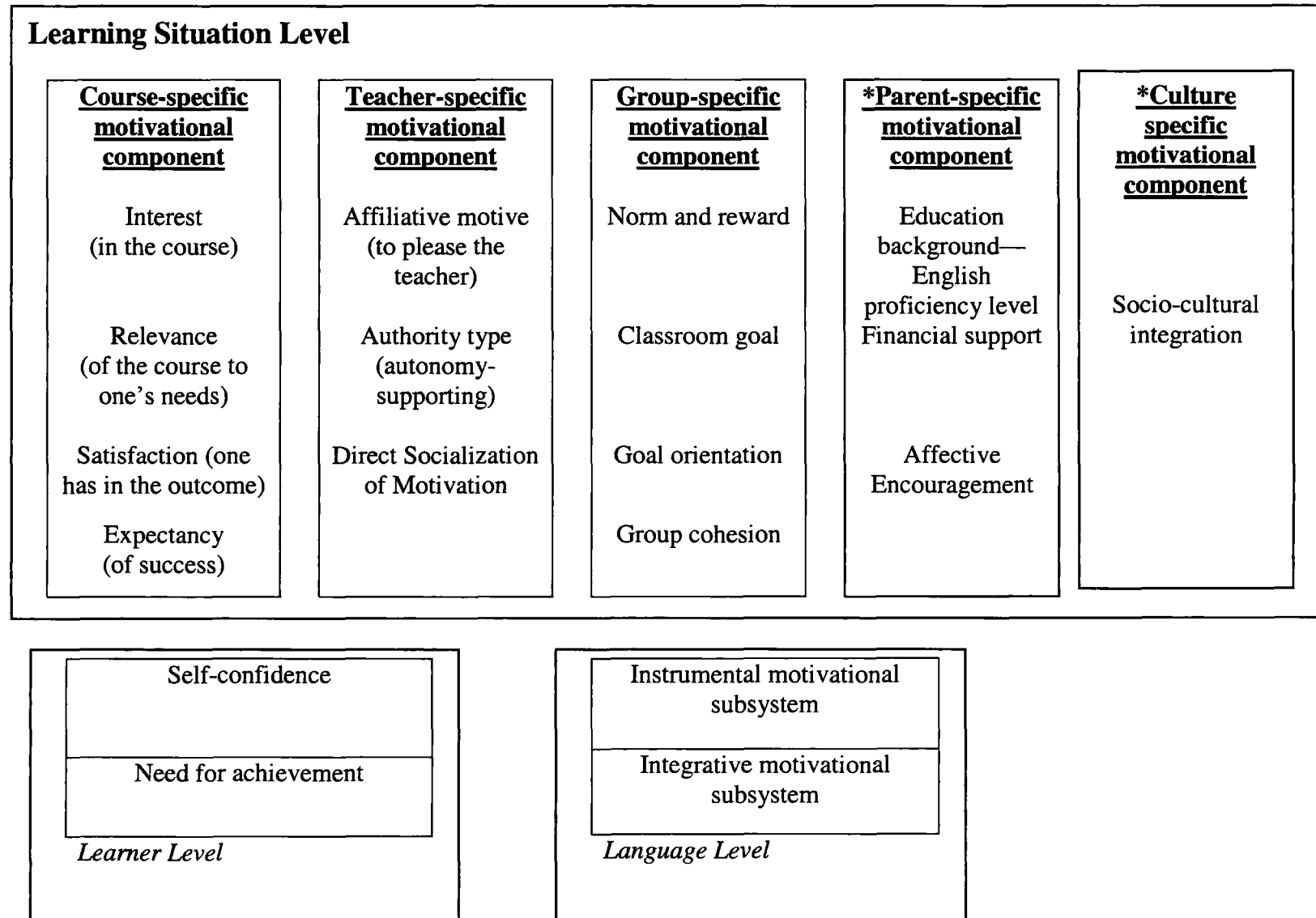
Table 16 *Parent-specific motivational component added to Dornyei's conceptual framework*

Language Level	Integrative motivational subsystem
	Instrumental motivational subsystem
Learner Level	Need for achievement
	Self-confidence
	* Language use anxiety
	*Perceived L2 Competence
	*Casual attributions
	*Self-efficacy
Learning Situation Level	
<i>Course-specific Motivation Components</i>	Interest (in the course)
	Relevance (of the course to one's needs)
	Expectancy (of success)
	Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
<i>Teacher-Specific Motivational components</i>	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)
	Authority type (autonomy-supporting)
	Direct Socialization of Motivation
	*Modeling
	*Task Presentation
	*Feedback
<i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientations
	Norm & Reward System
	Group Cohesion
	Classroom Goal Structure
<i>*Parent-Specific Motivation Components</i>	Education background—English proficiency level
	Financial support
	Affective encouragement
<i>*Culture-Specific Motivation Component</i>	Socio-cultural integration

* New motivation component added to Dornyei's (2001) extended framework.

Figure 4 Motivational components based on Dornyei's extended conceptual framework

*New components added in this study



3.4 Chinese students' learning motivation

To understand better why socio-cultural and contextual approaches are important to understand the general Chinese learners' motivation, the following section presents the major studies about Chinese motivation to learn.

Richards (1993) believed that Hong Kong students carry instrumental motivation orientation when learning English as this is the requirement for entering university which greatly affects their future employment aspect. Teachers and parents also emphasise very much the importance of public examinations. According to Fu (1987) and Walters and Balla (1992), they indicated a paradox: though Hong Kong students seems to be very much instrumental motivation oriented, students are reluctant to engage in independent, self-directed learning behaviour. It is difficult to determine whether this reluctance stems from cultural constraints mediating against the use of English or as Walters and Balla suggest, the lack of intrinsic motivation.

Biggs (1995: 48) believed intrinsic and extrinsic motivation may not directly apply to Chinese learners. He stated, 'Westerners have seen intrinsic motivation as the only way of defining what is meaningful and worthwhile...the Chinese learner may see things more pragmatically...the deep strategy may be activated by a head of mixed motivational steam: personal ambition, family face, peer support, material reward...and interest. Even more basic are those very Confucian "internal dispositions that create a sense of diligence and receptiveness"'. Biggs believed that achievement enhances westerners' ego, but

what constitutes success may be determined by significant others, e.g. family, group, or the society as a whole. Further, the pressure on Hong Kong students to study hard is notorious, regardless of the education level of their family. Chinese learners are likely to ascribe their performance to be due to controllable factors such as efforts and study methods. Ability itself is perceived by Chinese teachers, parents and students as an attribute that can be modified by effort.

Lin and Detaramani (1998) showed in their investigation that there was a much stronger extrinsic motivation than intrinsic motivation to learn English. They found that there is a reciprocal relationship between intrinsic motivation and perceived self-choice on the one hand and language attainment on the other hand. In other words, intrinsic motivation and perceived self-choice in language learning lead to high English attainment or vice versa. However, this study only investigated general students not immigrants. Therefore, this study attempts to investigate motivation to learn English especially with a specific group of students—NAHK students.

Richards (1993) investigated how different motives influence the learning strategies and language use patterns of senior secondary school students learning in Hong Kong. The findings suggested that motivation plays an important role in second language acquisition because of its close relationship to a number of factors which would influence the learning process, i.e. attitudes, attributions, views about language learning, strategies choice and language use patterns. The findings also showed that students who were motivated mainly by a strong

intrinsic interest in learning the language by a desire to be able to use it as a tool for communication, had a greater preference for communication-based learning activities, use English more frequently and in a greater variety of contexts than students who were motivated mainly by a desire to pass exams or enhance their career prospects. This study only focuses on senior form Hong Kong students who do not apply to NAHK students.

Salili and Hau (1994) examined how Chinese children view the relations between ability and effort. They suggested that Chinese students perceived great similarity between effort and ability. The positive relationship found could be seen as manifestation of the emphasis on effort in Chinese culture. They believe people affected by the cultural norm may believe that effort can facilitate the application of ability. However, at the same time, they may also believe that people with high ability do not need to make as much effort as people with low ability to succeed. Such belief in a compensatory relationship is reflected in a popular Chinese saying that “hard work may compensate for ineptitude”. In sum, the positive and compensatory beliefs, even though seemingly contradictory, may co-exist in Chinese culture.

Salili and Hau's (1994) found that among Chinese learners, studying hard does not link to better grades in school. In real life, low achievers often work harder than high achievers do. It is ironic that an emphasis on studying hard among low performing students might lead students to believe more in the compensatory rule. Furthermore, the frustration resulting from the lack of positive outcomes after working hard might in turn negatively affect students' performance. This

vicious circle, which is set up by Chinese people's beliefs in the relation between effort and ability, might be a key to understanding the vulnerability of Chinese students, which few researchers have addressed.

The above studies all focus on the general Chinese people's motivation to learn English, the perspective of NAHK students are not considered. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the motivation pattern of NAHK students and draw implications for the current teaching practices.

Chapter 4

Methodology

This chapter will...

- *look at the hypotheses and research questions set for this study; and*
- *look at what research instruments will be employed to answer the research questions set.*

4.1 Research Questions

To explore NAHK students' motivation to learn English and its relations to their demographic background, the following research questions and hypotheses are addressed in this study:

- (1) What are the most important factors that determine the NAHK's motivation to learn English?**

Hypothesis 1:

Among all motivational factor influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English, cultural adjustment serves the main significant factor.

Hypothesis 2:

Parents play a significant role in influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English.

Hypothesis 3:

Teachers serve an important role in motivating NAHK students to learn English.

(2) How does the NAHK students' background affect their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong?

Hypothesis 4:

Gender factor -- Female NAHK students may have stronger motivation to learn English.

Hypothesis 5:

Length of stay -- The longer the NAHK students stay in Hong Kong, the stronger the motivation to learn English.

Hypothesis 6:

Age factor -- The older the NAHK students, the stronger the motivation to learn English.

Hypothesis 7:

School form attending -- Senior years' NAHK students have motivation to learn English.

Hypothesis 8:

Geographical factor -- NAHK students who were born in Quangdong tend to have stronger motivation to learn English.

Hypothesis 9:

Financial and spiritual support from parents-- NAHK students will have a stronger motivation to learn English if their parents are able to provide sufficient support, spiritually or financially.

Hypothesis 10:

Parent's education factor -- NAHK students with parents of higher educational level (English proficiency level) tend to have stronger motivation to learn English.

4.2 Conceptual framework

Motivation has long been a hot topic in educational research because of its complexity. The construct of motivation is not a single entity but a multi-factorial one. Factors like socio-psychology, cognitive development, and socio-cultural psychology all have impact on motivation in language learning.

In this research study, the framework of Dornyei (1994) is adopted. This model consists of three levels of motivation, they are language level, learner level and learning situation level. Language level consists of two subsystems. They are integrative motivational system and instrumental motivational system. For learner level, it involves individual characteristics that learners have in their learning process. They include needs for achievement and self-confidence (anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attributions and self efficacy). For learning situation level, it associates with (1) course-specific motivation, which refers to syllabus, the teaching materials, teaching methods and learning tasks. (2) Teacher-specific motivation concerns motivational impact of the teacher's personality (affiliative motive), behaviour (direct socialization of motivation like modelling, task presentation, and feedback) and teaching style (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting) (3) Group-specific motivation refers to goal-orientedness, group cohesiveness, classroom goal structure, norm and reward system. (4) Course-specific motivation is related to learners' interest in the course, relevance of the course to student's needs, expectancy of success and satisfaction the student has in the outcome.

Dornyei's work has combined most of the major motivational theories into his model under different social levels (see Table 13). Dornyei's model fills the gaps of Oxford and Shearin (1994, 1996) and Williams and Burden (1997). However, there are two important elements that are not addressed—(1) *the role of parents played in*

students' L2 learning motivation has been ignored and (2) the role culture played in influencing L2 learning motivation, which had been mentioned in the previous chapter. This study has modified Dornyei's motivational constructs by adding them to the framework in the hope that the investigation of NAHK students' motivation is more theoretically and educationally significant as the two elements are particularly relevant in the Hong Kong context.

Having mentioned social integration, cultural adjustment and parental influence are also the factors influencing learners' motivation to learn L2 in the previous chapters; a new conceptual framework has been established to investigate the target learners in this study.

Table 17 is the modified version of the learning situation level in Dornyei's framework of L2 learning and will be used as the conceptual framework in this study.

Table 17 Extension of Dornyei’s Extended Framework (1994)

Language Level/	Integrative motivational subsystem
	Instrumental motivational subsystem
Learner Level	Need for achievement
	Self-confidence
	* Language use anxiety
	*Perceived L2 Competence
	*Causal attributions
	*Self-efficacy
Learning Situation Level	
<i>Course-specific Motivation Components</i>	Interest (in the course)
	Relevance (of the course to one’s needs)
	Expectancy (of success)
	Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
<i>Teacher-Specific Motivational components</i>	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)
	Authority type (autonomy-supporting)
	Direct Socialization of Motivation
	*Modelling
	*Task Presentation
	*Feedback
<i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientations
	Norm & Reward System
	Group Cohesion
	Classroom Goal Structure

<i>*Parent-Specific Motivation Components</i>	Education background—English proficiency level
	Financial support
	Affective encouragement
<i>*^Culture-specific motivational components</i>	Socio-cultural integration

** New motivation component added to Dornyei's (2001) extended framework.
 ^Culture level, due to its abstractness, will be integrated with other motivational
 components when setting up questionnaire.*

4.3 Design of research methods

In educational research, there are various styles of conducting reliable studies, ranging from naturalistic and demographic research, historical research, longitudinal research, correlational research, action research, *ex post facto* research, quasi-experiments and single-case research. To collect data, questionnaires, interviews, accounts, role-playing, observation, tests and personal constructs are all useful.

Among many motivational studies, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery has been widely adopted in researching motivational studies (like Clement et al, 1994; Kraemar 1993). It is a multi-component motivation test made up of over 130 items to examine L2 learning motivation. However, though it is widely used, this test is not suitable for this study because it focuses on a wide range of criteria which were not constructed on the basis of a systematic motivational framework. The structure of the questionnaire is too loose for investigating students' motivation pattern to

learn in this study's context. Also, the questionnaire is believed to be too long with too many details for students in Hong Kong to fill in. Students running out of patience may distort the reliability of the statistical results and jeopardise the reliability of the whole research design. Therefore, this study has adopted Dornyei's motivational framework and constructed a questionnaire to examine NAHK students' motivation to learn English and see how such examination can bring implication to English teaching and learning.

In view of time constraints and the need for a broad based investigation of NAHK students' motivation to learn English, it is believed that an adoption of questionnaire and interview will enable us to collect reliable data based on Dornyei's motivational framework. As stated by Cohen et al (2001: 247) "There is a simple rule of thumb: the larger the size of the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire may have to be." A 55-item questionnaire based on a six-point Likert scale was set for NAHK students to elicit their responses about motivation to learn English after moving to Hong Kong. The use of Likert scale is because "degree of responses, intensity of responses and the move away from dichotomous questions can be managed to be seen in rating scales" (*ibid*: 235).

The questionnaire included items about different motivational constructs of different levels based on the previously mentioned conceptual framework in the last section. They are language level, learner level and learning situation level. Respondents' demographic information such as age, gender, place of birth, arrival

year, school year attending and their parents' background information like education background, income and occupation were also collected in the last section of the questionnaire. Their name and contact number are optional and the respondents' choice to be filled in. Respondents have the rights to keep anonymous.

The second part of this study focused on interviewing respondents. As Kvale (1996:11) indicated, "The use of the interview in research marks a move away from seeing human subjects as simply manipulable and data as somehow external to individuals, and towards regarding knowledge as generated between humans, often through conversation (cited in Cohen, 2001: 248). Cohen et al (2001: 265) also stated, "interviews enable participants ...to discuss their interpretations of the world... and to express how they regard situations from their own point of view." Respondents were randomly chosen and their interviews were recorded for data analysis purpose. All respondents were informed of the recording. Questions asked in the interviews were all semi-structured and they were all related to their opinion on how they viewed learning and teaching English in Hong Kong. Since the use of quantitative method can not capture certain responses of the participants and how they perceive language learning, this study uses semi-structured interview to elicit NAHK students' explanation to their response answered in the questionnaire. Such semi-structured interview approach is known as "interview guide approach"—topic and issues to be covered are specified in advance, in outline form; the interviewer decides sequence and working of questions in the course of the interview (*ibid*: 271).

4.4 Sampling

The sample in this study comprised a total of 109 secondary school students in Hong Kong. Since the nature of this study required tremendous administrative help from schools to identify NAHK students for the researcher, it was not feasible to ask schools across Hong Kong to give permissions to conduct research with their students. Therefore, the researcher decided to use convenient sampling to conduct this research. One of the schools were the researcher's serving school while the other target school which agreed to participate in this study was identified through the researchers' personal contact.

Among them, 53 are girls and 56 are boys (see table 18). They were invited to take part in filling in the above-mentioned questionnaire. Borg and Gall (1979:194-5) suggested that there should be no fewer than 100 cases for survey research and in each major subgroup, and there should be twenty to fifty in each minor group.

In the questionnaire, demographic characteristics such as where they are from, family income and educational background which may play an important role in affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English were collected by using questionnaire.

Students of each demographic category were randomly selected and interviewed. These NAHK students are all studying in secondary schools, but from two different secondary schools. Both schools are located in an area where new immigrants reside. Schools where most NAHK students go to are the lowest banding (band one is considered to be the best schools while band 3 the least privileged). These two schools are of the same banding—band three. Sixteen of the NAHK students are from Form 6, ten of them are from Form 5, 32 of them are from Form 4, and 19 of them are from S3. Thirteen are from S2 and 13 are from S1 respectively (see Table 18). The duration of the subjects' staying in Hong Kong ranges from 1 year to 8 years (see Table 19). They are from 12 to 22 years old. These subjects were mostly born in Guangdong and there are only a few of them who were born in provinces other than Guangdong (see Table 19 and Figure 5).

Table 18 *Students' background information by gender, age distribution and school level*

Gender	Male		56
	Female		53
Age	12		1
	13		5
	14		14
	15		14
	16		18
	17		18
	18		16
	19		11
	20		9
	21		2
	22		1
School Year Attending	Form 1	Count	19
		Col %	17.4%
	Form 2	Count	13
		Col %	11.9%
	Form 3	Count	19
		Col %	17.4%
	Form 4	Count	32
		Col %	29.4%
	Form 5	Count	10
		Col %	9.2%
	Form 6	Count	16
		Col %	14.7%
Total	Count		109
	Col %		100.0%

Table 19 *Students' background information by arrival year and place of birth*

Arrival year	1997	Count	13
		Col %	11.9%
	1998	Count	19
		Col %	17.4%
	1999	Count	8
		Col %	7.3%
	2000	Count	21
		Col %	19.3%
	2001	Count	11
		Col %	10.1%
	2002	Count	12
		Col %	11%
	2003	Count	8
		Col %	7.3%
Place of birth	Guangdong	Count	96
		Col %	88.1%
	Provinces other than Guangdong	Count	13
		Col %	11.9%



Figure 5 Birthplace of subjects in China

From the below table, one can see almost 60 % of students’ parents only received secondary education while almost 14% of them received primary school education. Only 3% of parents have university qualification. 5 % of students’ parents did not receive any education before.

Students’ parent occupations are mostly service related or manual workers. More than 10% of them are unemployed. Therefore, their family income is relatively low. 10% of them have an income of below HK\$5000 (US\$ 642.67 or below) and 70% of them have an income of HK\$10000 or below (US\$1285.35 or below). Over 40%

of the respondents do not know what their parents' occupations are. This can be explained by the fact that NAHK students are not very affectively close to their parent(s) in Hong Kong as they have just come to Hong Kong for a short time.

Table 20 *Students' family background by education, occupation and income*

Parent's Education	University	Count	3
		Col %	2.8%
	Secondary	Count	63
		Col %	57.8%
	Primary	Count	15
		Col %	13.8%
	No formal education	Count	5
		Col %	4.6%
	Don't know	Count	23
		Col %	21.1%
Parent's Occupational Category	Manual worker	Count	17
		Col %	15.6%
	Service	Count	22
		Col %	20.2%
	Technical	Count	4
		Col %	3.7%
	Managerial and Professional	Count	3
		Col %	2.8%
	Unemployed	Count	11
		Col %	10.1%
	Retired	Count	7
		Col %	6.4%



	Unknown	Count	45
		Col %	41.3%
Family Income	Below 5000	Count	11
		Col %	10.1%
	5001 to 10000	Count	76
		Col %	69.7%
	10001 to 15000	Count	15
		Col %	13.8%
	15001 to 20000	Count	6
		Col %	5.5%
	More than 20000	Count	1
		Col %	0.9%

4.5 Research instruments

In this study, two sorts of data were collected by two different methods of collection. A detailed questionnaire was employed to collect quantitative data of students' motivation of learning English and their basic demographic characteristics such as age, gender, school year attending, year arrived in Hong Kong, place of birth, parents' occupation, income and education background. However, quantitative results can only generate a general picture of NAHK students' motivation. The use of student interviews allowed the researcher to investigate in greater depth significant points arising from questionnaire results. Conducting semi-structured interviews also served the purpose of complementing and explaining certain ambiguous answers found in questionnaires, of which some needed further explanation and elaboration. Interviewing with students is therefore a

complementary research tool to capture a complete picture of NAHK students' motivation to learn English.

4.5.1 Quantitative: Use of Questionnaire

The questionnaire administered in this study consists of 55 closed questions. Three statements were constructed for each sub-component under each motivation dimension and motivational component of the proposed version of Dornyei's extended framework. Table 21 provided a full picture of the statements. Questionnaire given to students were in Chinese, a language students are most familiar with, to avoid language barrier and communication breakdown.

Table 21 Questionnaire items developed under Dornyei's motivation framework

Motivation Dimension	Motivation Component	Sub-component	Item No.	Question (English)	Question (Chinese)
Language Level		Integrative motivational subsystem	9	English is a foreign language I like.	英語是我喜歡的一種外語。我
			17	<i>**I learn English because it helps me to learn Hong Kong culture better.</i>	我學英語是因為可以欣賞到香港的文化。
		Instrumental motivational subsystem	33	I learn English because I want to get a good job.	我學習英語是因為我想找到一份好工。
			41	<i>**I learn English because I need English to adjust well in Hong Kong.</i>	學好英語能令我適應香港的生活。
Learner Level		Need for achievement	47	I learn English because English is a necessity for my future.	我想學好英語，因為這是為自己的未來打算的必要條件。
			50	I need English to study well in other subjects.	我需要英語來學習其他的科目和知識。
			53	<i>**Rather different from Mainland China, having a good standard of English is a must to be successful in Hong Kong.</i>	和內地不同，在香港要出人頭地，必須要有良好的英語水平。
		Self-confidence			
		• language use anxiety	55	I am not afraid to speak English in class.	我並不怕在同學面前說英語。
			46	I am not afraid to make mistakes in English homework.	我並不怕做英文功課時犯錯誤。
		• received L2 competence	40	I continue learning English because I can express what I want to say without much difficulty.	我繼續學習英語，因為我並沒有太大的困難用英語說出我想表達的說話。
			32	My writing is up to my English teacher's expectation.	我的英語寫作能力能夠達到英文老師的要求。
		• causal attributions	24	I have the ability to pass English test/exam despite how I did in the past tests and exams.	無論我過往的英語成績如何，我有足夠能力在英語測驗考試中取得合格成績。
			16	I don't mind putting efforts on learning English despite my English learning history.	無論過往我的英語成績如何，我不介意付出努力學習英語。
		• self-efficacy	8	No matter how difficult I think English is, I will never give up learning.	無論過往我認為英語有多困難，我都不會放棄。
			2	If English teacher assigns difficult English homework, I still try my best to finish it.	即使英文老師給一份很難的功課，我都盡力完成。

Learning situation level			10	<i>**I am not afraid of communicating English with my Hong Kong classmates in English although my accent is different from theirs.</i>	即使我的英語口音和香港的同學不一樣，我也不怕在他們面前說英語。
	Course-specific motivational components	Interest (in the course)	1	I like what I have learnt in English lessons.	我喜歡我在英文課所學習的東西。
			25	I am very interested in what my English teacher is teaching me.	我很喜歡英文老師所教授的東西。
		Relevance (of the course to one's needs)	18	The English I am learning in English lessons can be used in my daily life.	我在英文堂所學的，都能在日常生活上應用得到。
			26	What I am learning now is useful for my studies.	我所學的英文都對我的學業很有幫助。
		Expectancy (of success)	34	I believe I can pass my English tests/exams.	我相信我能在英文期終試能順利取得合格或以上的成績。
			42	I believe I can learn English well.	我相信我能夠學好英語。
		Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)	48	So far I am happy with my progress of learning English.	直至現時為止，我滿意我的英語學習進度。
			51	I am happy with my English test results.	我滿意我的英語成績。
			45	<i>*I have already adapted well and am feeling comfortable with the curriculum, examinations and classroom teaching in Hong Kong.</i>	我對香港的英語課程內容、考試和授課模式都已很適應。
	Teacher-Specific Motivational components	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)	15	I want to pass my English because I do not want to disappoint my teacher.	我努力學習英語因為我不想令老師失望。
			39	If I can master English well, my teacher will have a better impression of me.	如果我有良好的英語成績，老師會對我有良好的印象。
		Authority type			
		• democratic type	31	Teacher who are more liberal can motivate me learn English.	較為自由開放的英文老師可以提升我對學習英語的興趣。
			23	I can learn better English if my English teacher controls me less.	如果老師給予學生多點自由的學習空間，我會學習英文學得更好。
		Direct Socialization of Motivation			
		• Modelling	7	I want to speak good English like my English teacher does.	我希望能說到和英文老師一樣流利的英語。
			3	I want to communicate well with foreigners like my English teacher does.	我希望能像我的英文老師般，用英語和外國人對答如流。

		• Task Presentation	11	My English teacher presents clearly when he/she asks us to perform a task.	當英文老師給練習我們做時，老師的講解清晰。
			19	I understand my English teacher's instructions.	我明白英文老師所給予的指引。
		• Feedback	27	The feedback my English teacher gives me relating to my work and learning progress is useful for my learning.	在功課和學習過程上，老師給我的回應都對我很有幫助。
			35	Feedback from teachers encourages me learning English.	老師給的回應能鼓勵我學好英文。
			43	<i>**The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students help me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English.</i>	香港英文老師的教學方式和對學生的態度能令我更適應香港的英語學習環境和更用心學好英語。
	Group-Specific Motivational Components	Goal-orientations	49	I try my best to learn English because I know the benefits of learning English.	我學習英語因為我明白英語為我帶來的好處。
			52	I know I will have a hard time in the future if I don't learn English well.	我知道如果我現在不努力學好英語，我的將來將會有很多困難。
			54	<i>**Learning English is a key not to let people look down on me.</i>	我知道學好英語，別人不會小看我。
		Norm & Reward System	44	I feel proud in class if my English teacher praises me.	如果英文老師在同學面前稱讚我，我會覺得很光榮。
			38	A fair reward system motivates me to learn English.	一個公平的獎勵制度可以令我更努力學習英語。
			30	<i>**The reward system in Hong Kong helps me integrate better with the new learning environment.</i>	香港學校的獎勵制度能令我更適應香港的英語學習環境。
		Group Cohesion	22	Learning English with my friends together is better than learning it by myself.	與同學一起學習英語比一個人學更好。
			14	If my friends are good at English, I want to be good at English too.	如果我的朋友英語水平好，我也想和他們一樣。
			6	<i>**I want to learn better English so that I can integrate better with my friends in Hong Kong.</i>	我想在香港學好英語是因為我想和我香港的同學融合得更好。
		Classroom Goal Structure	4	I like English class activities.	我喜歡英文課堂上的英語活動。
			12	I prefer doing pair/group project than individual work.	我喜歡做小組報告多於自己做功課。

	<i>*Parent-Specific Motivation Components</i>		20	<i>**Doing projects and group work help me integrate better with my classmates in Hong Kong.</i>	做小組報告或專題研習能令我更容易適應香港的英語學習。
		Education Background—English proficiency level	28	My parents will teach me English when I need them to.	當我遇到英語上的疑難，我的父母會教導我。
			36	My parents will point out my English mistakes.	我的父母會指出我在英語上所犯的錯誤。
		Financial Support	37	My parents pay for English tutorial class for me to improve my English.	我的父母願意負擔補習社的學費。
			29	My parents are willing to pay for the English reference books when I need them.	我的父母願意支付英文補充作業的費用。
		Affective encouragement	21	My parents always encourage me to improve my English.	我的父母經常鼓勵我學好英語。
			13	My parents use different means to motivate me learn English.	我的父母經常用不同的方法推動我學英語。
			5	<i>**Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong.</i>	我父母在財政上的支持和平日的鼓勵能令我更投入香港的學習英語環境。

***Questions integrated with cultural motivational element focusing on cultural adjustment from Mainland China to Hong Kong.*

Based on the modification of Dornyei's model, this study has constructed three statements under each motivational component. The following section gives details of questions set in the questionnaire in attempt to elicit samples' response of specific motivational constructs.

A. Language level

(1) Instrumental motivational subcomponent

Under language level, instrumental and integrative motivational subcomponents are the two main constructs under this level. Instrumental motivation is characterised by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Hudson 2000).

Questions set to elicit students' response on instrumental motivational subcomponent are: "I learn English because I need it to pursue my studies", "I learn English because I want to get a good job" and "I learn English because I need English to adjust well in Hong Kong".

(2) Integrative motivational subcomponent

According to Lambert (1974:98), an integrative orientation involves an interest in learning an L2 because of "a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group" which contrasts with an instrumental orientation that concerns "the practical value and advantages of learning a new language". Questions set in the questionnaire are "I learn English

because English is a beautiful language”, “English is a foreign language I like” and “I learn English because it helps me to learn Hong Kong culture better.”

B. Learner level

(1) Need for achievement

Under learner level, there are two main constructs. They are learners’ need for achievement and self-confidence. “Need for achievement” refers to “an individual with a high need for achievement are interested in excellence for its own sake, tend to initiate achievement activities...this need...affects the person’s behaviour in every facet of life, including education” (Dorneyi, 2001: 21). In the context of this study, need for achievement refers to NAHK students’ need and use English as a tool to achieve their academic goals. Questions set for “need for achievement” in the questionnaire include “I learn English because English is a necessity for my future”, “I need English to study well in other subjects” and “Rather different from Mainland China, having a good standard of English is a must to be successful in Hong Kong”.

(2) Self-confidence

“Self-confidence” is another construct under learner level. According to Dorneyi (2001: 56), self-confidence refers to the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals or perform tasks competently. There are four

motivational orientations under self-confidence. They are language use anxiety, received L2 competence, causal attribution and self-efficacy.

For language use anxiety, it refers to the learners' worries or anxiety over language use. Under "language anxiety", this study has set "I am not afraid to speak English in class" and "I am not afraid to make mistakes in English homework" as the questions to examine students' response.

For "received L2 competence", it refers to NAHK students' perception of his/her own English competence in this study. "I continue learning English because I can express what I want to say without much difficulty" and "My writing is up to my English teacher's expectation" are set as questionnaire items to be asked in this study.

"Causal attribution" refers to people's linking their past experiences with their future achievement efforts by introducing causal attribution as the mediating link (Dornyei, 2001: 91). This study asks students opinion about "I have the ability to pass English test/exam despite how I did in the past tests and exams" and "I don't mind putting efforts on learning English despite my learning history".

Lastly, "No matter how hard I think English is, I will never give up learning", "If English teacher assigns difficult English homework, I still try my best to finish it" and "I am not afraid of communicating English with my Hong Kong classmates in English although my accent is different from theirs" are the

questions this study tried to elicit students' responses on "self-efficacy" which refers to a generalised perception of one's coping potentials, relevant to a range of tasks and subject domain (Dornyei, 2001:56).

C. Learning situation level

Under learning situation level, there are four different aspects of motivational orientation this study intends to examine. They are course-specific motivation, teacher-specific motivation, group-specific motivation and parent-specific motivation.

(1) Course-specific motivation

Course-specific motivation is divided into four different components—interest in the course, relevance of the course to one's needs, expectancy of success and satisfaction one has in the outcome.

"Course-specific motivational components" are related to the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method and the learning tasks, and can be well described with the framework for four motivational conditions proposed by Keller (1983) and subsequently by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) (interest, relevance, expectancy and outcome) (Dornyei, 2001:112). Questions set for interest in the course are "I like what I have learnt in English lessons" and "I am very interested in what my English teacher is teaching me." Questions set for relevance of the course to one's need are "The English I am learning in English

lessons can be used in my daily life” and “What I am learning now is useful for my studies”. The two questions “I believe I can pass my English tests/exams” and “I believe I can learn English well” are set to elicit students’ response to their expectancy of success. Lastly, “So far I am happy with my progress of learning English”, “I am happy with my English test results” and “I have already adapted well and am feeling comfortable with the curriculum, examinations and classroom teaching in Hong Kong” are set for examining students’ satisfaction in their outcome.

(2) Teacher-specific motivation

Under teacher-specific motivation, “affiliative motive to please teacher”, “authority type” and “direct socialisation” are the motivational subcomponents. Teacher-specific motivational components concerns the motivational impact of the teacher’s personality, behaviour and teaching styles/practice (Dornyei, 2001: 35).

(a) Affiliative motive to please teacher

Affiliative motive to please teacher refers to the students’ need to do well in school in order to please the teacher or other superordinate figures (Dornyei, 2001: 35-36). This study has set questions “I want to pass my English because I do not want to disappoint my teacher” and “If I can master English well, my teacher will have a better impression of me” to test this motivational construct.

(b) Authority type

According to Dornyei's motivational framework, authority type refers to whether the teacher is autonomy supporting or controlling. In this study, the democratic type of teacher is assumed to be the type NAHK students would prefer. This study has set two questions to seek responses from students. They are "Teachers who are more liberal can motivate me to learn English" and "I can learn better English if my English teacher controls me less".

(c) Direct socialisation

According to Dornyei's (2001:36) explanation, direct socialisation refers to whether teachers can exert a direct and systematic motivational influence by means of actively socialising the learners' motivation through appropriate modelling, task presentation and feedback. "Modelling" refers to setting an example both in terms of effort expenditure and orientations of interest in the subject. "Task presentation" refers to calling students' attention to the purpose of the activity they are going to do, its interest potential and practical value and the strategies that may be useful in achieving the task, thus raising students' interest, metacognitive awareness and expectation of success. "Feedback" refers to the means which communicates a clear message about their priorities, value preferences and attributional beliefs."

- **Modelling**

For modelling, two questions are set in the questionnaire. They are “I want to speak good English like my English teacher does” and “I want to communicate well with foreigners like my English teacher does”.

- **Task presentation**

“My English teacher presents clearly when he/she asks us to perform a task” and “I understand my English teacher’s instructions” are set to test students’ responses about teachers’ task presentation.

- **Feedback**

Three questions about feedback are set. They are “The feedback my English teacher gives me relating to my work and learning progress is useful for my learning”, “Feedback from teachers encourages me to learn English” and “The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students helps me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English”.

(3) Group-specific motivational components

Group-specific motivation refers to the impact of interpersonal processes on student behaviour within learner groups (Dornyei, 2001: 38). Under group-specific motivational components, they can be studied meaningfully with four

main factors. They are goal-orientation, norm and reward system, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure.

(a) Goal-orientations

In Dornyei's framework, he proposed that group goals are closely linked to individual member's motivation (*ibid*: 38-40). McCaslin and Good (1996: 642) also stated "student motivation and learning are typically conceptualised as individual variables; assessments locate their presence or absence within students" (cited in Dornyei 2001: 38). That is, in this context, learning good English "locates" whether NAHK students successfully become "present" in their class group. This study therefore asks NAHK students, "Learning English is a key not to let people look down on me", "I know I will have a hard time in the future if I don't learn English well" and "I try my best to learn English because I know the benefits of learning English" to see how goal orientation affects their individual motivation to learn English.

(b) Norm & reward system

For norm and reward system, Ehrman and Dornyei (1998:130-131) explained, "they specify acceptable behaviour in the class group and contribute to conditions assumed by the group and/or its leadership to be optimal for effective learning...standards by which group members regulate their own behaviour to make task accomplishment possible..." (cited in Dornyei 2001: 39). In this

context, teacher's praises and disapproval of students' behaviours are considered to be the "norm and reward system" in this study. There are three different questions set—" I feel proud in class if my English teacher praises me", "A fair reward system motivates me to learn English" and "The reward system in Hong Kong helps me integrate better with the new learning environment" to see how norm and reward system motivate NHAK students' motivation to learn English.

(c) Group cohesion

Group cohesion refers to "the strength of intermember relations...that holds the group together and maintains it as a system" (*ibid*: 40). In this study, three questions are set for group cohesion. They are "If my friends are good at English, I want to be good at English too", "learning English with my friends together is better than learning it by myself" and "I want to learn better English so that I can integrate better with my friends in Hong Kong".

(d) Classroom Goal Structure

"Classroom goal structure" in this study refers to the setup of cooperative learning environment which has been proved to be an effective method of organizing classroom instruction in order to achieve common learning goals via cooperation (See Dornyei, 1997) . Three statements are set for classroom goal structure, namely, "I like English class activities", "I prefer doing pair/group

project than individual work” and “Doing projects and group work help me integrate better with my classmates in Hong Kong”.

(4) Parent-specific motivation

Parent-specific motivation, in this study, concerns the parents’ impact on NAHK students’ motivation. Under parent-specific motivation, this study has identified three different dimensions—“education background—English proficiency level”, “financial support” and “affective encouragement”.

For education background (English proficiency level), it refers to the education background of NAHK students’ parents bring impact on their own children’s English learning, specifically English proficiency, e.g. academic guidance given to their children. This study asked students if they agree on statements “My parents will teach me English when I need them to” and “My parents will point out my English mistakes”.

Financial support refers to the specific financial support NAHK students’ parents provide their children with to learn English. To see if students’ parents financial support is of importance to students’ motivation to learn English, this study asked students to respond to statements “My parents English tutorial class for me to improve my English” and “My parents are willing to pay for the English reference books when I need them”.

Finally, affective encouragement refers to both verbal and non-verbal encouragement NAHK students' parents give to their children to boost their confidence in learning English. This study asked students to indicate their level of agreement to statements "My parents always encourage me to improve my English", "My parents use different means to motivate me to learn English" and "Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong".

(5) Culture-specific motivation

Culture is never a fixed entity, therefore this study integrated cultural elements in the statements mentioned on different level in order to investigate students' opinion about how much they believe cultural element is an important factor in affecting their learning of English.

According to Jary and Jary (1991:101), culture is referred to as the way of life for an entire society, which includes codes of manners, dress, language, religion, rituals, norms of behaviour and systems of belief. Culture-specific motivation concerns motivational constructs that the norms and beliefs of the entire society impact on. In this study, NAHK students are assumed to be integrated with the dominant Hong Kong culture by learning English.

Statements of culture-specific motivation are set inclusively and integratively with other motivational components in this study. Since Dornyei's motivational framework is the most suitable framework embracing both psychological and

sociological aspects to assess NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong, one culture-specific statement has been set under each motivation level, motivation dimension, motivational component or motivational sub-component, except course-specific and teacher-specific motivational components because one statement can embrace the different aspects of the above specific motivational components. Cultural adjustment and integration are the focus of culture-specific motivation. There will be 11 questions asked which are related to culture-specific motivational component in the entire study (see Table 21) . They are "I learn English because it helps me to learn Hong Kong culture better" (Language level—integrative motivational subsystem), "I learn English because I need English to adjust well in Hong Kong" (Language level—instrumental motivational subsystem), "Rather different from Mainland China, having a good standard of English is a must to be successful in Hong Kong" (Learner level—need for achievement), "I am not afraid of communicating English with my Hong Kong classmates in English although my accent is different from theirs" (Learner level—self-confidence), "I have already adapted well and am feeling comfortable with the curriculum, examinations and classroom teaching in Hong Kong" (Learning situation level—course-specific motivational components), "The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students help me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English" (Learning situation level—teacher-specific motivational components), "Learning English is a key not to let people look down on me" (Learning situation level—group-specific motivational components—goal orientations), "The reward system in Hong Kong helps me integrate better with the new learning environment" (Learning situation level—group-specific motivational

components—norm and reward system), “I want to learn better English so that I can integrate better with my friends in Hong Kong” (Learning situation level—group-specific motivational components—group cohesion), “Doing projects and group work help me integrate better with my classmates in Hong Kong”(Learning situation level—group-specific motivational components—classroom goal structure), and “Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong” (Learning situation level—parent-specific motivational components).

The questionnaire adopted a six-point rating scale for respondents to indicate their responses ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. 6 indicated statements respondents strongly agreed with; 5 referred to statements respondents agreed with; 4 signified statements respondents tended to agree with; 3 referred to statements respondents tended to disagree with; 2 signified statements respondents disagreed with while 1 indicated respondents strongly disagreed with those statements. A dividing line between positive and negative motivation was drawn at the mean score of 3.500. Statistical results below 3.500 represent low motivation while mean scores of above 3.500 represents low motivation. The six-point rating scale was used is because it is a useful tool to measure the degree of sensitivity and differentiation of response while numbers can still be generated. It also allows researchers to fuse measurement with opinion, quantity and quality. Using an even number of scale points, in this study six-point scale, requires participants to make a decision on rating to be indicated and avoid participants from choosing the mid-point as their answers (Cohen *et al* 2000: 253-4). A pilot study was carried out to confirm whether six-

point scale is effective in lowering respondents’ tendency to choose the central response. Cantonese was the language used in the questionnaire as students are most comfortable with the language.

A reliability test on all these 55 questionnaire items was run to test if there is an internal consistency of all the items set. Reliability coefficient (Cronbach alphas) for the motivational components was high, with an alpha value of 0.952 which means the internal consistency of the 55 items set in the questionnaire was high (see Table 22).

Table 22 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.952	0.965	55

Cronbach’s Alpha shows 0.952 which signifies high reliability of questionnaire set.

4.5.2 Qualitative: Interview

Face to face and semi-structured interviews were conducted after statistical results were preliminarily analysed. As there were areas presented in the statistical results which needed to be explained by respondents who filled in the questionnaire, the conduct of interviews with the respondents filled the gap of areas which needed further explanation.

Ten students were randomly interviewed in total. The researcher first collected the questionnaires filled by the respondents. Since the section of personal particulars was optional, respondents could choose not to fill it in. The researcher then manually categorised the questionnaires based on the personal data filled by the respondents voluntarily. The first respondent from the lists of each demographic characteristic category was drawn to be interviewed. If the first respondent of a particular group had been repeatedly drawn for more than once, the second respondent on the list would then be drawn instead.

The respondents chosen for interviews were of different characteristics—different gender, age group, place of birth, arrival year, school year attending and of different family background (see Table 23). There were 6 female and 4 male NAHK students of different ages (from 14—21) from different school forms who participated in the interview. They were also born in different places of China but mostly in Guangdong. Their parents were of different backgrounds.

Interviews with the respondents were conducted in the schools they attended. The room used for interviewing was a counselling room in which a non-threatening environment could help respondents to express their feelings about English learning. The researcher first thanked them for participating in this study and stated the purpose of the interviews and how it would be conducted. Respondents were also reminded that the interview would be tape-recorded and their responses would remain confidential. Therefore, the names were disguised.

Table 23 *Demographic characteristics of interviewees*

Name of respondent	Sex	Age	Place of birth*	Arrival year	School year attending	Parents' income	Parents' occupation	Parents' education background
Chan	F	21	GD	2003	Form 6	HK5001—HK\$10000	Manual	Secondary
Lam	M	19	GD	2000	Form 5	HK10001—HK\$20000	Managerial	Tertiary
Leung	F	16	Others	2004	Form 4	HK5001—HK\$10000	Not sure	Not sure
Kan	F	14	GD	2003	Form 2	HK5001—HK\$10000	Service	Secondary
Wong	M	15	GD	2002	Form 3	HK5001—HK\$10000	Service	Primary
Man	M	20	GD	2001	Form 6	HK5001—HK\$10000	Manual	Primary
Ng	M	17	Others	2003	Form 4	HK5001—HK\$10000	Service	Secondary
Lee	F	15	Others	1997	Form 3	Under HK\$5000	Retired	Not sure
Ho	F	19	GD	1999	Form 6	HK5001—HK\$10000	Manual	Secondary
Iu	M	18	GD	1998	Form 5	HK5001—HK\$10000	Service	Secondary
Yuen	F	14	GD	2003	Form 1	HK5001—HK\$10000	Not sure	Not sure

* GD= Guangdong

All semi-structured questions were formed based on four different headings—teaching, learning, social integration and parents’ influence. Questions asked in the interviews were mainly the core questions (see below). The subsequent questions under each heading were only asked when an interviewee did not touch upon them.

Semi-structured, face to face interview was chosen as the most appropriate research strategy of collecting qualitative data because of its advantages of focusing on the specific experience and perceptions of individuals engaged in language learning. Conceptual models prompt qualitative research rather than vice versa; real-life experience examples provide illustrative evidence and explain the grey areas this study found from the statistical results.

Guiding interview questions–Motivation to learn English

1. Why do you learn English?

- Do you like learning English in Hong Kong? Why or why not?
- Is it more important to learn English in Hong Kong?
- Do you like English as a language?
- Do you think learning English can help you integrate with the Hong Kong students/people?
- Can learning English help you make more local friends?
- Do you find learning English useful? How?
- Do you think English is one of the important factors in deciding whether you can get a good job?

- How do you feel in English lessons? Happy? Anxious, nervous, etc?
- Do you enjoy doing group-work?
- Do you enjoy class activities?
- Are you happy with what you have been learning in English classes?
- Does the reward system in Hong Kong schools motivate you to learn English?
- What do you think of your English teacher?
- Does your English teacher make you learn better English?
- Do you think your teachers will have a better impression of you if your English is good?
- Is it true to say that your learning English is because you do not want to disappoint your teacher?
- Do you think you will learn better English if your English teacher controls you less?
- Do you think your English teacher shows you a good model of English?
- Does your English teacher praise you? If so, does it make you put more effort in learning English?
- Do you think the feedback you get from the teachers help you learn English?
- How do you feel when your English teacher gives you difficult homework?
- Do your English teachers give clear instruction? If so, does it help you understand better?

4. How do you find your English accent? The same or different from your classmates?
- How do you perceive your English proficiency?
 - How would you improve your English?
 - Do you think you can pass your English examinations?
 - Are you happy with your learning progress?
 - Do you think you will learn better English if you learn it with your friends together?
 - Will you give up learning English one day?
 - Are your parents able to help your English work?
 - Do your parents spiritually encourage you to learn English?
 - Do your parents financially support you learn English?

4.6 Procedures

A pilot study had been carried out before the final questionnaire was set. Firstly, students took part in the preliminary test and completed the Chinese version of the questionnaire. Then, they were also invited to comment on the language and the content of the questionnaire. After that, a statistical reliability test was carried out to ensure the questionnaire items were set reliably. The reliability test was carried out through the instrument of SPSS. Certain item had achieved the results lower than 0.80, it shows the items set with low statistical reliability. For example, in the preliminary test, item on authority type “Teacher who are more democratic can motivate me to learn English” was deleted and

“democratic” was replaced by “liberal” as students from the Mainland China might not be familiar with the idea of “democracy”.

After the pilot study was carried out, participants revealed their worries that the data they have given out would be passed onto their English teachers. The researcher then realised the need of ensuring participants the confidentiality of all data collected. An informed consent form was then drafted in the hope that participants would respond honestly without worrying about the confidentiality of the data.

On the day of students’ filling in the revised questionnaire in class, participants finished the questionnaire under the researcher’s monitoring. An informed consent form was also signed before filling in the questionnaire to ensure the data collected would only serve the purpose of the present study. All students were gathered in the school hall. The researcher then read the instruction written on the questionnaire. Students were also again verbally assured that the information they filled in would only serve the purpose of this study. Thirty minutes was given to fill in the questionnaire. Finally, statistical analyses were carried out by using SPSS.

4.7 Data analysis

Data collected from the feedback on questionnaire was analysed by using “Statistical Package for the Social Sciences” (SPSS). Several statistical application and analysing methods was employed in this study.

Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to illustrate the characteristics of NAHK students which has already been described in the section on methodology.

Secondly, a reliability test was also employed to ensure the data collected were consistent across the parts of the measurement. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated in this study. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is to test the internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire as it assumes the equivalence of all items.

Thirdly, correlational statistics were also employed to examine the existence of strength and direction of relationship and associations between different dimensions of students' motivational components and orientations, e.g. language level, learn level and learning situation level.

Lastly, face-to-face interview were conducted with an attempt to understand students' responses better in the context of teaching and learning that affect their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. The qualitative data obtained were transcribed from the respondents' first language (Cantonese) into English for codification. The data were analysed manually by categorising the answers based on specific markers. The markers were on par with the research questions and hypotheses set for this study. That is, for example, RQ1 for research question 1, RQ2 for research question 2; H3 for hypothesis 3; H4 for hypotheses 4 and so on. This classification enabled the researcher to effectively further

investigate the statistical results and transcripts could also be used to supplement the answers found from the statistical data.

4.8 Ethical issues

There are a number of measures adopted to try to protect better the rights of the participants of this study. Firstly, the principle of voluntary participation was adopted to ensure that participants are not be coerced into taking part in research. An informed consent form was filled by every participant of this study before their participation meaning that prospective research participants were fully informed about the procedures involved in research and had given their consent to participate. Permission to conduct the study was sought from the University ethics committee.

Ethical standards also require that researchers not put participants in a situation where they might be at risk of harm as a result of their participation. Harm can be defined as both physical and psychological. There are two measures that were applied in order to help protect the privacy of the prospective participants.

The investigator of this study guaranteed the participants confidentiality – they were assured that identifying information would not be made available to anyone who is not directly involved in the study.

Another measure was to make sure the principle of anonymity would be applied, which essentially means that the participants would remain anonymous throughout the study. In this study, participants were not required to fill in their names. When interviewing, participants were also assured that their names would be changed and disguised on the research report.

Chapter 5

Findings

This chapter will...

- *present the statistical results of all the research questions and hypotheses set for this study;*
- *analyse and present the interviewee's responses towards their learning English in Hong Kong.*

The presentation of this chapter follows the organisational structure of the modified Dornyei's motivational framework. Since the demographic background of NAHK students is very unique and special, the last section of this chapter is devoted to a description of how the demographic background of the NAHK students affects their motivation to learn English. Several hypotheses related to their age, gender, arrival year, school year attending, place of birth, parents' income, education background and occupation are set and to be tested. To examine the hypotheses set, descriptive data are presented and discussed in this section.

*General motivation → Motivation dimensions →
Specific motivational components and sub-components →
Relationship between motivation to learn English and NAHK students'
demographic background*

Figure 6 Flow chart of chapter organisation

5.1 A general picture: Overall attitude to learn English

Before investigating NAHK students' motivation to learn English in detail, their overall motivation is to be described and presented in this section.

To examine NAHK students' motivation to learn English, respondents were asked to answer a questionnaire of 55 items based on 6-point scale (6 for strongly agree, 5 for agree, 4 for tend to agree, 3 for tend to disagree, 2 for disagree, 1 for strongly disagree) because this scale is a useful tool to measure the degree of sensitivity and differentiation of response while numbers can still be generated. It also allows researchers to fuse measurement with opinion, quantity and quality. Using an even number of scale points, in this study, six-point scale requires participants to make a decision on rating to be indicated and avoids participants choosing the mid-point as their answers (Cohen *et al* 2000: 253-4).

According to the grand table (see appendix 5), NAHK students' overall motivation to learn English tends to be strong (M: 3.994 SD: 1.076). The result of having 3.994 as the mean score of NAHK students' overall motivation to learn English is an indication of a relatively positive attitude to learn English. In other words, this group of students are not repellent to learn English.

According to the statistical results, it is apparent that NAHK students do have a positive motivation to learn English, but there are complicated reasons behind this that stop them from being wholly motivated to learn English in Hong Kong because the standard deviation shows that the distribution of the mean is 1.091 though not very much dispersed. That is, there are students in this group who hold negative motivation in learning English, ranging from 3 (tend to disagree) to 5 (agree).

Simply looking at the general English learning motivation is not sufficient to draw any convincing conclusions. In order to further examine why students are motivated, or de-motivated, to learn English after arriving Hong Kong, a further and deeper examination is needed and necessary. In the following sections, NAHK students' motivation at dimensional and component levels will be looked at in the hope that a microscopic view of this group of the students' motivation to learn English can be magnified. Light can also be shed on further research on motivating NAHK students to learn English after arriving Hong Kong.

5.2 Testing the three motivation dimensions: Language, learner and learning situation levels

From the previous section, results found that NAHK students show a relatively positive motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. On the basis of the mean score and the standard deviation found, however, there are complicated reasons behind this result. In this section, NAHK students' motivation is to be

investigated at the level of motivation dimensions. They are learner level, language level and learning situation level.

5.2.1 Learner level: Strong instrumental value and determination but lack of self-confidence

A glance at the following table, which is extracted from the grand table (see appendix 5), shows that learner level is found to be the most influential in positively affecting NAHK students’ motivation to learn English (M: 4.162, SD: 1.123). Language level and learning situation level follow respectively.

Table 24 *Mean and SD of motivation dimension*

Rank	Motivation Dimension	Mean	SD
1	Learner level	4.162	1.123
2	Language level	3.938	1.051
3	Learning situation level	3.881	1.053

According to Dornyei’s framework, learner level includes two different motivational sub-components namely need for achievement and self-confidence. Language use anxiety, received L2 competence, casual attributions and self-efficacy are categorised under self-confidence. A closer look at the motivation sub-components can give us insights and explain the reasons of learner level being the most influential in affecting students’ motivation to learn English.

Table 25 *Mean and SD of learner level*

Motivation dimension	Motivational sub-component	Item	Questionnaire question	Mean	SD
Learner level	Need for achievement	47	I learn English because English is a necessity for my future.	4.771	0.856
		50	I need English to study well in other subjects.	4.156	1.066
		53	Rather different from Mainland China, having a good standard of English is a must to be successful in Hong Kong.	4.477	1.120
	Self-confidence				
	• language use anxiety	55	I am not afraid to speak English in class.	3.951	1.182
		46	I am not afraid to make mistakes in English homework.	4.183	1.156
	• received L2 competence	40	I continue learning English because I can express what I want to say without much difficulty.	3.486	1.207
		32	My writing is up to my English teacher's expectation.	3.367	1.245

	• casual attributions	24	I have the ability to pass English test/exam.	3.459	1.337
		16	I don't mind putting efforts on learning English.	4.303	1.220
	• self-efficacy	8	No matter how hard English is, I will never give up learning.	4.239	1.312
		2	If English teacher assigns difficult English homework, I still try my best to finish it.	4.000	1.227
		10	I am not afraid of communicating English with my Hong Kong classmates in English although my accent is different from theirs.	3.900	1.170

Looking at the first component of learner level, need for achievement carries an instrumental value that helps NAHK students secure their future. Therefore, the mean of the component need for achievement is high (M: 4.468, SD 1.014) (see Appendix 5).

This result is on par with previous research done on Chinese ESL learners.

Biggs (1995) described the educational values held by Chinese people. Biggs stated Chinese people believe that getting higher education will give them a high position and high pay. The children's achievement honours their family and even their ancestors. Therefore, Chinese people have had a tradition of studying hard, entering good colleges, and sometimes, sad to say, ignoring the importance of well-rounded performance and personal development.

Bond (1986, 1991) also described that inculcation of the desire to achieve as one of the three themes that dominate a Chinese child's development. Other researches like Yang (cited in Bond 1991) found that Chinese people often define the standard against which achievement is to be measured. Lai (1999) also compared pre- and post-1997 attitudes to the learning of English in Hong Kong. Data confirmed the strong instrumental, career-related motives of the learners for Chinese learners.

Lau and Feather (cited in Bond, 1991) also found that Hong Kong and Mainland Chinese's values related to achievement and success receive high endorsement in their culture. Though in many ways, Bond's findings were found in the late 80's and early 90s which are already outdated due to the inevitable social changes, there are some interesting quotes in his work. Bond (1991: 29) said in his book, "The important factor is, of course, actual achievement, not motivation. In Chinese culture, childhood achievement is almost exclusively defined in academic terms." This quotation signifies the importance of achievement in Chinese culture and motivation is of secondary importance. That

is indeed the reason for conducting this research—to enhance NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

Though the general statistics above show that NAHK students have a fairly strong motivation to learn English because of their need to achieve; under the same motivation dimension, NAHK students in fact have low self-confidence in English learning (M: 3.856, SD: 1.232) (see Appendix 5).

One point needs to be emphasised is that NAHK students possess a very complex self-confidence situation. From a closer look at the above table, one can see in some aspects students are very confident but some hold the opposite. Under the sub-motivational component “self-confidence”, the sub-components with the means above 4.00 are all related to “self-determination”. They are “*I am not afraid to make mistakes in English homework.*” “*I don't mind putting efforts on learning English.*” “*No matter how hard English is, I will never give up learning.*” and “*If English teacher assigns difficult English homework, I still try my best to finish it.*”

This finding and the old Chinese saying “A person with will and determination can make things possible” (有志者事竟成) are in accord. According to Bond (1986, 1991), believing in determination is a major characteristic of Chinese ESL learners. Salili (1996) investigated age, sex, and cultural differences in achievement motivation and discussed the entire range of results in terms of sociocultural and situational factors. Results revealed that Chinese students tested highest for achievement motivation. In most cases, Chinese regard their

success to being more related to hard work than ability. Even Chinese educators believe the same. They believe creativity and understanding require much effort, repetition, and attention (Walkins, 2000).

Chan et al (1991) suggested that for low achievers who have low expectancy success, getting a pass is their dominant concern. Chinese parents view their children's success predominantly important, they view failures of their children as the consequence of lack of effort (Hess et al, 1987). Salili and Mak (1988) also found similar results that effort was perceived by Hong Kong students as the most important antecedent for 'academic achievement', 'being wealthy' and 'career success'.

It has been suggested that children assume that performance outcomes are primarily a function of effort. They believe that success is the outcome of exerting enough effort even after repeated failures. They do not attribute past performance to stable causes over which they have no control. They assume that ability is unstable and influenced by practice and effort (Weisz and Stipek, 1982).

However, there are dilemmas faced by the NAHK students when learning English in Hong Kong. A look at table 25 shows there are items NAHK students feel particularly not confident in, which attribute greatly to the low average mean to "self-confidence". These items, whose mean scores lower than 3.500 are *"My writing is up to my English teacher's expectation"*, *"I continue learning English because I can express what I want to say without much*

difficulty” and “*I have the ability to pass English test/exam*”. These items reflect that NAHK students have no confidence in meeting various academic expectations.

The above statistics show a very complicated psychological state of mind of the NAHK students’ motivation to learn English—NAHK students have strong motivation to learn English because of its instrumental values and they have strong determination in achieving their goals. However, they have little confidence in meeting certain academic requirements.

Peng (1993) explained that Chinese society emphasizes education as a passport to or an insurance for a successful and happy life, particularly for those individuals with disadvantaged backgrounds. This emphasis has made the Chinese education system extremely competitive and that students with relatively poor language standard may suffer from lacking confidence in their studies. This piece of fact makes ANHK students possess little confidence in achieving well academically.

The results found that NAHK students have strong determination to learn English but they have no confidence in meeting academic expectations from teachers, parents and themselves. Interestingly, the interview responses echoed the statistical results. All the interviewed respondents in this study revealed the fact that their reasons for learning English are to have a better life in the future, for instance, getting into university, a good job and better career prospect. They also believed putting more efforts into learning English is the key to success.

The following responses are in fact very representative as all interviewees expressed similarly that their motivation to learn English is influenced by their 'need for achievement'.

LTY: English is a compulsory subject in Hong Kong. If it is not important, it will not be a compulsory subject...also, if I can't pass English in HKCEE, I can't go to university, then I can't get a good job. (LTY 12)

LSS: I learn English because it's a survival skill and a must in Hong Kong. I want to pass my public exam, go to university and find a good job. All these plans require a pass in English public examinations. You can still survive in China without knowing a word of English but here in Hong Kong, no. (LSS 13)

The following responses also reflect the strong belief of NAHK students that determination is an important psychological factor to act as a motivator and enhance their English proficiency.

NSY: I deeply believe in the unlimited power of human. Human has been making things possible. That is the same thing whenever I think of my English. Yes, my English is not good. With my will and determination, I know I can do it. (NSY 59)

LSS: Chinese people have a reputation of hard working. We believe we

can make our dreams come true if we work hard and if we have the mind and goal set well. Then, what we need to do next is, try our best and not to give up easily. (LSS 46)

The above analysis found that NAHK students' self-confidence and need for achievement are the key elements affecting their motivation to learn English at the dimension of language level. Instrumental values serve the main purpose of their learning English. NAHK students believe that self-determination is what they need in order to successfully acquire the target language, though they are not yet confident in their language proficiency that they can meet various academic requirements. This proved what Bond (1991) described, "Chinese think of themselves in less positive terms" and "more anxious about tests".

After exploring NAHK students' motivation to learn English at the level of motivational dimension, looking into the real face of the students' motivational pattern by investigating different situation specific motivational components is the next step of the study.

5.2.2 Examining specific motivational components

After investigating how much each motivation dimension affects NAHK students' motivation to learn English, it is the situation specific motivational components which is to be examined next. According to Dornyei's framework, situation specific motivational components include teacher-specific motivational components, group-specific motivational components and course-specific

motivational components. In this study, two additional components have been added onto Dornyei's framework—they are parent-specific motivational components and culture-specific motivational components (see section 3.3). The modification of Dornyei's framework in this study is supported by Holloway et al's (1986). They found that transmission is not from one agent. Rather, it is a many-to-many process through teachers, peers, parents as well as mass media. Therefore, cultural setting may be more important in transmitting values and goal orientation.

From the above section, one can see that learning situation level received the lowest mean score among the three levels (M: 3.881, SD: 1.053), which deserves to be given greater attention. Therefore each specific motivational component under learning situation are to be further examined in the following sections in the hope that NAHK students' motivation to learn English can be analysed and studied in detail. Each motivational component has also been developed into hypotheses to be tested in this study, the following sections therefore aim to examine the hypotheses set.

Table 26 *Mean and SD of specific motivational components 1*

Rank	Specific motivational components	Mean	SD
1	Teacher-specific motivational components	4.174	0.947
2	Group-specific motivational components	4.098	0.961
3	Culture-specific motivational components	3.885	1.040
4	Course-specific motivational components	3.778	1.139
5	Parent-specific motivational components	3.470	1.178

Teachers and peers are the two groups of people they would directly meet and associate with when NAHK students first came to Hong Kong. According to the above table, the results show that teacher asserts the greatest influence on NAHK students' motivation to learn English and it is the most significant factor which directly affects NAHK students' learning behaviour. Since teachers are the significant others when NAHK students learn English, this study hypothesises that teachers play a significant role in affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English, which will be further discussed and looked at. The most important of all, how they influences students' mind of English learning in one of the upcoming sections.

Peers and culture are also found to be influential in affecting the group of students' English learning motivation. Peers and culture have a very close relationship between each other as peers are the significant others that help NAHK students integrate with the local culture and peers are often the agents

who NAHK students get to know the culture of the target community. How these two factors affect NAHK students' English learning motivation is to be discussed in the following sections.

While teacher, peers and culture all received high statistical means in affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English, the course or curriculum assert relatively less influence on this group of students as the content and the design of the course pose no immediate effects on NAHK students in relations to teachers, peers and culture. It is easy for one to imagine that for a newcomer who joins an unfamiliar community, the people of the local community is certainly the first and foremost factor affecting the newcomer's social integration and their attitude towards the community. The same logic applies to NAHK students' arriving in Hong Kong and their learning English in a new educational setting. NAHK students' motivation is influenced when they integrate with the Hong Kong community.

However, according to the table above, parent-specific motivational components receives the lowest mean score of all ($M: 3.470$, $SD: 1.178$) which means in general parents play the least significant role in affecting students' English learning motivation in relation to other motivational components. Does it mean parents have the least influence on students' motivation to English learning? Or are there any other salient implications that can be drawn from the preliminary results? Further details and discussions on this area are to be presented in the upcoming section in the hope that the above questions can be answered and explored.

5.2.3 Factors affecting students' motivation to learn English:

- **Cultural adjustment: A motivational catalyst to learn English**

When NAHK students arrive in Hong Kong, one may think and wonder if they can manage to culturally adjust well in Hong Kong. In this study, cultural specific motivational components were added onto Dornyei's motivation framework to investigate this particular group of students' motivation to learn English in a specific cultural context, especially cultural adjustment is at high stake. This is also therefore one of the hypotheses this study set for this study.

Previous studies like Wen (1997) and Glazer (2000) discussed the influence of culture on different immigrant groups' success or failure but the results they found are not conclusive. To investigate in what ways cultural-specific motivation affect NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong, it is important to compare, from NAHK students' point of view, the level of importance that this motivational factor has on their English learning behaviour in relations to other motivational factors. Therefore, looking at the calculation of means can provide us with a general picture of the NAHK students' motivation pattern.

Table 27 *Mean and SD of specific motivational components 2*

Rank	Specific motivational components	Mean	SD
1	Teacher-specific motivational components	4.174	0.947
2	Group-specific motivational components	4.098	0.961
3	<i>Culture-specific motivational components</i>	3.885	1.040
4	Course-specific motivational components	3.778	1.139
5	Parent-specific motivational components	3.470	1.178

On learning situation level, culture specific motivational components are placed as the third most influential motivational components that affect NAHK students' motivation to learn English after teacher and peers. Meanwhile, cultural specific factors are comparatively more influential than the influence from the English course or parents. Results from the above table provide a general English learning motivation pattern of the NAHK students on the learning situation level.

To look at cultural-specific motivation, there are four culture-specific motivational component items with a mean score over 3.9000 namely need for achievement, goal-orientation, teacher-related factor and instrumental motivational subsystem (see appendix 5). Need for achievement and goal-orientation are the two motivational components that most affect their motivation to learn English, considered by NAHK students'. Instrumental value of learning English (ranked fourth on table) is also considered to be crucial under the context of culture. That is, mastering good level of English can help

them settle in Hong Kong easier and to be accepted by Hong Kong people.

These are the most imminent needs for NAHK students when they first came to Hong Kong. Teachers are also found to be the agents to help them adapt well in Hong Kong school settings.

- **Need for achievement and goal orientation**

Culture is closely tied with instrumental orientation. The data found echoed what the previous section presented. As a number of researchers also stated that the meaning of achievement is cultural related and this mediates people's achievement significantly (Bond, 1983, Agarwal & Misra, 1986; Fyans, Salili, Maehr & Desai, 1983; Maehr, 1974; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980; Fletcher and Ward 1988). NAHK students in Hong Kong context is an example.

Need for achievement, goal orientation and instrumental sub-motivational subsystem are found to be the most significant factors in affecting NAHK students learning of English in the cultural context of Hong Kong. These results are on a par with the high mean scores found in the previous section that NAHK students' strong emphasis on need for achievement at learner level (See section 5.2.1). Teacher-related motivational components also echoed the fact that teacher-specific motivational components are of the most crucial among the five different situation specific motivational components (see table 24). The influence of culture can indeed trigger different degrees of impact in different situations.

Table 28 *Mean and SD of culture-specific motivational components*

Rank	Culture-specific motivational components	Item	Questionnaire question	Mean	SD
1	Need for achievement	53	Rather different from Mainland China, having a good standard of English is a must to be successful in Hong Kong.	4.477	1.120
2	Goal-orientation	54	Learning English is a key not to let people look down on me.	4.168	1.167
3	Teacher-related	43	The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students help me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English.	3.963	0.729
4	Instrumental motivational subsystem	41	I learn English because I need English to adjust well in Hong Kong.	3.954	1.090
5	Self-confidence	10	I am not afraid of communicating English with my Hong Kong classmates in English although my accent is different from theirs.	3.900	1.170
6	Course-related	45	I have already adapted well and am feeling comfortable with the curriculum, examinations and classroom teaching in Hong Kong.	3.817	1.172

7	Parent-related	5	Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong.	3.798	0.901
8	Group cohesion	6	I want to learn better English so that I can integrate better with my friends in Hong Kong.	3.752	1.010
9	Norm & reward system	30	The reward system in Hong Kong helps me integrate better with the new learning environment.	3.743	0.929
10	Classroom goal structure	20	Doing projects and group work help me integrate better with my classmates in Hong Kong.	3.624	1.037
11	Integrative motivational subsystem	17	I learn English because it helps me to learn Hong Kong culture better.	3.541	1.110
Average				3.885	1.040

In students' interviews, NAHK students also expressed the results found in the statistical data. Students repeatedly emphasised that learning English is an instrument for better social integration in Hong Kong. They believed learning English can help them get into university, find a good job and have better career prospect, so that they can settle in Hong Kong easier.

The following excerpts show how students see the close linkage between learning English as a tool to settle in Hong Kong.

Excerpt 1:

LTY: Um...I think learning English is important. If we don't know English, it is hard to survive. Also, English is a compulsory subject in Hong Kong. If it is not important, it will not be a compulsory subject...also, if I can't pass English in HKCEE, I can't go to university, then I can't get a good job. (LTY 12)

LTY: Umm...I can also use English to meet people from other countries. It is an international language. Also, I will have a better job prospect if I can speak good English. (LTY 16)

R: I see. What about have a better job prospect. How can learning English give you a better job prospect? (LTY 19)

LTY: That's simple. If I can speak good English, my boss can send me overseas for business trips...but I know it is only my dream. (LTY 20)

Excerpt 2:

LSS: Hong Kong is a materialistic world. It is very difficult to develop yourself if you don't know English. Or I should say, I won't be able to get as much opportunities as other people do if I don't know English. Worse, knowing just enough English is not enough. You have to be really good at English so that people will give you chances. (LSS 29)

LSS: If everyone knows English, everyone will have equal chances. If your English is obviously better than everyone else's, your chances are higher. (LSS 31)

LSS: English also helps me understand Hong Kong better. When I first came to Hong Kong I had no idea why English is so important, but then when I study more, I realised that the British colonial government had in fact influenced Hong Kong a lot and English became a tool for local Hong Kong people to "climb up" if they want to be successful because many government officials are all fluent in English. If you want to join the civil servant force, good mastery of English is a requirement. From this "historical lesson" I learnt the importance of English in one's career, life and future. (LSS 33)

LSS: Also, when I first came to Hong Kong, I looked at the job listing pages on the newspaper, I realised that no jobs does not require a pass in HKCEE English and the importance of English. (LSS 39)

R: Does it mean you learn English because you want to integrate better and settle down in Hong Kong? (LSS 40)

LSS: Yes, without doubt. (LSS 41)

From the above excerpts, English learning seems to be an instrument for them to settle in Hong Kong better because mastering good level of English provides them with a higher education opportunity and better career prospect which helps them settle in Hong Kong better and this had been proved by many researches done in the past (see section 3.4).

- **Teacher's influence**

The teacher is another factor affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English. According to the questionnaire, when students were asked to state their opinion on the statement "*The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students help me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English*" (Q 43), a mean score of 3.963 was found. That is, the teacher is a facilitator in helping NAHK students to adjust well to the Hong Kong learning environment and students also have confidence in the teachers of Hong Kong that they can help them excel their English language proficiency.

The following are how respondents in the interviews explicitly described their English teachers in Hong Kong and how they helped them with their English proficiency and social adjustment.

LTY: As I have just said, my English teacher would not push me if I did not study hard. But in Hong Kong, my English teacher pushes us so hard to learn English. Many assignments, quizzes, dictations...almost every week I have a compulsory English remedial class to attend. (LTY 34)

NSY: My teacher is very nice. She will give us her email so that whenever we have done any extra work, we can email her and she will send us feedback. She spends extra hours help us catching up things. (NSY 89)

LLY: When I first came to Hong Kong, my teacher knew that I was from the Mainland. She gave us tutorial classes on Hong Kong English like street names, surnames...and many Hong Kong English terms we need to learn so that we can see the difference between Hong Kong English and Mainland Chinese English. The way we spell names are different. I did not know those English words were so important until I do HKCEE past papers. The more I do HKCEE past papers, the more I found there are vocabulary that are specialised in the Hong Kong environment. If my teacher did not show us the difference, we could have spent much longer time on figuring out the differences between Hong Kong English and

Mainland Chinese English. I really have to thank my English teacher. (LLY 98)

The results found in this section clearly state the role of teacher is a double-edge sword which helps NAHK students learn better English and fill the learning gap between Hong Kong and Mainland China. As described by the respondents, their English teachers spent extra time to help them learn and catch up with their English. On the other hand, English commonly used in Hong Kong were also introduced in order to help NAHK students to adjust better to the new learning environment.

- **Peer influence**

Statistics show that the need for achievement, goal orientation, instrumental motivational subsystem and teacher-related factors are the most influential under the context of Hong Kong culture. Another motivational sub-component that also influenced NAHK students' learning motivation to learn English and was repeatedly mentioned by most respondents was the peer.

Although there are previous studies claiming children ignore social comparative feedback and tend not to compare their performance to other children and their self-evaluations are relatively unaffected by normative information (Ruble, Boggiano, Feldman & Loebel, 1980; Ruble, Parsons and Ross, 1976), this study shows another side of the story.

Though the mean of group cohesion is not high compared with other motivational sub-components (see table 26 & 27), respondents described the cultural difference between their peers and they were significant enough to motivate them to learn English. As Pye (cited in Bond, 1991, p.38) also explained group cohesion is one of the high values of Chinese people. Bond (1986, 1991) also indicated, Chinese high school students report that they make friends with those who are altruistic, hard-working, good at school work and amiable.

In student interviews, one respondent found that speaking good English gains him social seniority. The following is the excerpt that shows how a NAHK student found speaking English helped him have better social integration because of the social discrimination he suffers in Hong Kong. Social integration is an important group-related concept for most Chinese people. They see their ideal self closely involve in positive social relationships (Bond, 1986, 1991).

LTŸ: Well, you know people in Hong Kong do have some kind of “discrimination” towards Mainlanders. If I speak English, not Cantonese, with them, they may think I am educated and “a bit more superior” than the normal mainlanders. Also, I can hide my accent. (LTŸ 60)

R: Hide your accent? (LTŸ 61)

LTY: Yeah...I have Mainland accent no matter when I speak English or Cantonese. If my English was good, then people wouldn't look down on me, or at least they would be more willing to be my friends. (LTY 62)

R: Um. Interesting. So you think it is the accent obstructs your integration? (LTY 63)

LTY: Sort of. Accent is the first thing people identify you, right? It's already hard to meet friends, not to mention the local people know that you are from Mainland China. If I had no accent, HK people would not see me differently and I would have a better chance meeting more friends. (LTY 64)

R: You don't want to be viewed differently? (LTY 65)

LTY: In a good way, fine. If not, no. (LTY 66)

R: You mean people in Hong Kong view Mainland Chinese in an unfriendly way? (LTY 67)

LTY: Yes. We are looked down and Hong Kong people always judge people out of their first impression. (LTY 68)

Another respondent also expressed the fact that peers serve as an important motivator in her social integration process, especially at the early stage of coming to a new environment.

NSY: My friends looked at me differently when I was first introduced in the class. The only people who would talk to me are those who were also from China. The local Hong Kong students would not take the initiative to talk to me unless I talked to them first. But then after several months, the Hong Kong students started talking to me. (NSY 63)

R: Why? (NSY 64)

NSY: I think it is because I am a very open-minded person and I always teach them Mathematics. Most of my classmates' Mathematic skills are not good so I teach them. (NSY 65)

R: Do you think your Hong Kong local classmates will talk to you if your Math is just like theirs? (NSY 66)

NSY: I don't know. Maybe not. Or it will take me longer time to make them my acquaintances. (NSY 67)

R: When is the most difficult time when you first came to Hong Kong? (NSY 68)

NSY: It has to be in English lessons. (NSY 69)

R: Why is it so? (NSY 70)

NSY: First, my English is not good. I have different accents from my Hong Kong classmates. Even those classmates who came from China and had been in Hong Kong for many years, they are all very quiet in English lessons. Second, I don't know how my classmates react to my English. (NSY 71)

R: It seems to me that you care a great deal about how your friends look and view you. Is that true? (NSY 72)

NSY: Well, I used to have many friends back in China, but when I first came here, I had no friends at all. I need friends to hang out with me, to do group project with me and share my ups and downs. Or you can say, I am a teenage girl who needs lots of peer support but I guess it is only natural. (NSY 73)

Peer relationship is educationally and socially important. Peer and social acceptance are found to be a significant indicator of students' sociability (Chen, 1992; Hicks, 1997; Pilgrim, Luo, Urberg, 1999) and academic confidence. This

is especially important to NAHK students because they are found to have low self-confidence academically. Berndt (1990) & Plecha (2002) confirmed the importance of peer and social acceptance. She found that it is significant that diverse peer interaction may play a key role in the development of academic self-confidence in students. Wentzel (1998) also found that the supportive relationships of parents, teachers, and peers are the source of support and motivational outcome. Peer support was a positive predictor of pro-social goal support.

- **Self confidence**

Another motivational sub-component that is worth noticing is “self-confidence”. According to the above table, “self-confidence” receives a mean score of 3.900 (See Table 28). Though it is not the weakest nor strongest, there are significant and complicated issues behind these data which can be revealed by interviewing.

Based on the interview responses given by the respondents, the researcher found that the different English accents uttered by the NAHK students affected their confidence in speaking English with their local Hong Kong classmates but NAHK students very much believed that putting enough effort could help them succeed in English learning. Up to this point of data analysis, NAHK students’ determination of learning English indeed has to be highly appreciated.

Excerpt 1 shows how NAHK students felt and what happened when they were having English lessons in Hong Kong while excerpt 2 shows their strong will and mind in overcoming linguistic obstacles.

Excerpt 1:

LLY: I don't like reading aloud in class. I feel terrible every time my friends laugh at my English. (LLY 72)

R: What do you mean? (LLY 73)

LLY: Even before I start reading, some of my classmates would start laughing already. (LLY 74)

R: Why do you think they laugh at you? (LLY 75)

LLY: I think it is because I have different ways of reading English. (LLY 76)

R: Do you think you can do something about it? (LLY 77)

LLY: I don't know. My teacher said if I practise everyday by reading aloud and following how native English speakers pronounce words. That will help. (LLY 78)

R: Will you do that then? (LLY 79)

LLY: I will of course. Nothing is impossible, right? (LLY 80)

Excerpt 2:

NSY: I know my English is different from my Hong Kong classmates, but there is nothing I can do about it. I guess all I can do is to try my best to pass my HKCEE and HKAL and get a good grade and get into university. I don't care if they laugh at me or not. (NSY 59)

R: You mean you don't mind the way your HK classmates look at you? (NSY 60)

NSY: I do, to some extent, but there is nothing I can do. I will just do my best and prove that they are wrong. (NSY 61)

Based on what the statistical results and interview responses found in this study, a conclusion can be drawn— there is evidence to support the first hypothesis of this study “Among all motivational factors influencing NAHK students’ motivation to learn English, cultural adjustment serves the main significant factor”. Statistical results support the view that culture served the third main factor affecting NAHK students’ motivation to learn English after teacher and peer. Interview responses also mirrored the statistical results found.

5.2.4 Factors affecting students' motivation to learn English

- **Parents' role supporting English learning**

In this study, the second hypothesis set is to test whether parents play a significant role in influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English since Chinese are known to have a close and intense sensational attachment with their family (Bond, 1991, p.36) just as the Chinese saying states, "Blood is thicker than water" (血濃於水). Chinese parents are believed to have a significant influence on their children. Demand and expectation from Chinese parents are also high. Chiu (1987) found that Chinese parents tend to have higher ratings than Western parents on parental control and emphasis on achievement. It is therefore believed that Chinese parents should have heavy influence on their children. Similar attitudes towards education is also displayed by overseas Chinese parents (Ghuman and Wong 1989). Chinese parents in the UK ascertained the importance of education and schooling for their children. Yang's (1986) work also supported the above results. Chinese children are reared in an environment where effort, endurance, and hard work are emphasised. They are taught to work hard otherwise the possibility of being successful is low.

According to the following table, parent-specific motivational components are found to have the lowest mean score (M: 3.470 SD: 1.178) among the rest of the four motivational components. There is less evidence to support the second hypothesis on this level. However, conclusive conclusion can not yet be drawn

at this point as a closer look at the sub-component under parent-specific motivational component is necessary.

Table 29 *Mean and SD of specific motivational components 3*

Rank	Specific motivational components	Mean	SD
1	Teacher-specific motivational components	4.174	0.947
2	Group-specific motivational components	4.098	0.961
3	Culture-specific motivational components	3.885	1.040
4	Course-specific motivational components	3.778	1.139
5	<i>Parent-specific motivational components</i>	<i>3.470</i>	<i>1.178</i>

Table 30 *Mean and SD of parent-specific motivational components*

Rank	Parent-specific motivational components	Mean	SD
1	Financial support	3.890	1.304
2	Affective encouragement	3.777	1.021
3	Education background—English proficiency level	2.744	1.209
Average		3.470	1.178

Under parent-specific motivational component, there are three sub-motivational components namely financial support, affective support and education background. They are the core elements believed to be influential in enhancing their children’s motivation to learn English in Hong Kong, if not decisive.

Among the three elements, financial support is believed to be the motivational sub-component that can exert the highest level of influence on NAHK students' English learning based on the above statistical results. Affective encouragement is placed next and education background plays a much less significant role in enhancing NAHK students' motivation to learn English.

- **Poor education background**

The following table shows the education background information of NAHK students' parents. The statistical results can in fact be predicted because official data from the government have already provided a basic idea of the education background of the NAHK families (see section 1.2). According to the following table, only 2.6% NAHK students' parents received tertiary education. Even though there are 55.3% of parents who have secondary education level, it does not mean parents can help their children's English homework because English was not introduced as a compulsory subject in early years. Therefore, a low mean score can in fact be expected on education background in motivating NAHK students' to learn English.

Table 31 *Parent education level of NAHK students*

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	University	3	2.8
	Secondary	63	57.8
	Primary	15	13.8
	No formal education	5	4.6
	Don't know	23	21.1
	Total	109	100.0

A look at the following table, the questionnaire items “My parents will teach me English when I need them to” and “My parents will point out my English mistakes” vividly show the inability of their parents to help out with their English work because of their sheer education background.

Table 32 *Mean and SD of parent-specific motivational components*

Parent-specific motivational components	Item	Questionnaire question	Mean	SD
Education Background—English proficiency level	28	My parents will teach me English when I need them to.	2.780	1.094
	36	My parents will point out my English mistakes.	2.708	1.324

Financial Support	37	My parents pay for English tutorial class for me to improve my English.	3.927	1.182
	29	My parents are willing to pay for the English reference books when I need them.	3.853	1.426
Affective encouragement	21	My parents always encourage me to improve my English.	4.230	1.012
	13	My parents use different means to motivate me learn English.	3.303	1.150
	5	Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong.	3.798	0.901

The low mean of NAHK students' parent education background indicates the fact of the NAHK students' learning situation. That is, NAHK students cannot turn to their parents for help in terms of academic enquiries. However, even the parental education background does not much boost NAHK students' motivation to learn English, this does not automatically mean NAHK students' parents play a non-significant role in their children's education. The results found under affective encouragement and financial support support the view that NAHK parents' have a significant role in their children's education.

- **Full financial support**

A look at the table 32, financial support receives a mean score of 3.890 while parental education background receives 2.744. These two contradictory figures show the true yet touching side of the learning situation of the NAHK students and their families in Hong Kong. With a low education background, NAHK students' parents are inevitably from the low social class with low income. However, according to the responses given by the NAHK students, the descriptive statistics (M: 3.8900), the questions "My parents pay for English tutorial class for me to improve my English" and "My parents are willing to pay for the English reference books when I need them" show that their parents in fact fully support their academic studies despite the fact that they do not have sufficient income (also see section 5.2).

The following excerpts describe how NAHK students view their parents' role in motivating their English learning.

Excerpt 1:

LTY: My father always says to me that I have to learn good English because he does not want me to follow his step. As for my mom, she is still in the Mainland, but when I call her on the phone, she will always ask me how my English is. (LTY 104)

LTY: Every time she asks me, I feel guilty for not working hard enough, then I will go home and start spending more time on English.
(LTY 108)

Excerpt 2:

HHM: My parents always say the same thing: Work harder and try your best. We can't help you much. Tell us what you need and we will try our best to provide you with anything you need. If we try our best to feed you, you should also try your best to study hard.
(HHM 99)

R: Does the way they say it motivate you to learn English? (HHM 100)

HHM: Well, at the beginning, it was a bit annoying. However, after several months of settling in Hong Kong. I did start to realise the importance of studying hard in Hong Kong. Then, when my parents said the same thing again...it hit me hard, really hard. I then fully understand what my parents said are not "parent lecture". Those words are from the bottom of their hearts. (HHM 101)

NAHK students also emphasised their parents financially support them to learn English. Excerpt one shows the ways NAHK students' parents support their children. Excerpt 2 tells a touching story which shows how NAHK students' parents sacrifice for their children and it is not uncommon for the NAHK students' families.

Excerpt 1:

R: What about financially? Can they support you? (LTY 109)

LTY: You mean things like going to tutorial schools and stuff? (LTY 110)

LTY: Yeah, like tutorial schools, supplementary exercises, books...something like that. (LTY 111)

LTY: Every time I ask my father for money, he will give it to me. But I don't do that often because it is difficult to earn money. (LTY 112)

Excerpt 2:

TLK: My parents will never fail me if I ask them for money to support me academically. I know they are not rich. We live in public housing estate and my father is already very old. He is 73 now. I

know he will not be able to work for many more years. He should be saving money for his retirement but he never rejects my request. (TLK 89)

R: Why did he do that then? Do you know? (TLK 90)

TLK: I know that he will have an easier retired life back in Mainland China if our whole family moves back to our home town after his retirement. However, he insists staying in Hong Kong. He also spent a lot of money on getting me and my mom to come to Hong Kong. Sometimes I don't understand why he has to make his life so difficult by staying in Hong Kong but of course deep down I know he did all that for the sake of my future. (TLK 91)

- **Affective encouragement**

The parents of the NAHK families in actual fact deserve applause. Not only do NAHK students' parents work hard to earn a living to support their children's education, they also encourage their children to study hard by giving them affective encouragement. Looking at the following at table, one can confirm the affective support the NAHK students' parents give their children is the main source of NAHK students motivation to learn English. The table shows affective encouragement and financial support are the key factors positively influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

Though one item of “affective encouragement”—“ My parents use different means to motivate me learn English”—does not hold a high mean (M: 3.303, SD 1.266), it shows the implicit way of Chinese family way of encouraging and raising children.

Table 33 *Mean and SD of parent specific motivational components by rank*

Rank	Parent-specific motivational components	Item	Questionnaire question	Mean	SD
1	Affective encouragement	21	My parents always encourage me to improve my English.	4.230	1.012
2	Financial Support	37	My parents English tutorial class for me to improve my English.	3.927	1.182
3	Financial Support	29	My parents are willing to pay for the English reference books when I need them.	3.853	1.426
4	Affective encouragement	5	Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong.	3.798	0.901
5	Affective encouragement	13	My parents use different means to motivate me learn English.	3.303	1.150

6	Education Background	28	My parents will teach me English when I need them to.	2.780	1.094
7	Education Background	36	My parents will point out my English mistakes.	2.708	1.324

Students’ interview responses also paralleled the above findings. The following excerpts show how the respondents describe their parents’ role in encouraging them in learning English and yet in a subtle way.

LLY: My parents never explicitly say things like “I love you” to me. I don’t know how I would respond to that if they really said that to me. Maybe it is because I am a boy and my parents are both very conservative Chinese as well. We do things with silence and my parents encourage me to do things with silence. Though they never encourage me verbally but I know they do that in their hearts all the time. (LLY 109)

NSY: My parents worry about me a lot. When it is teacher-parent day, both my parents will show up in the meeting though it is held twice a year. Both my mom and my dad will take a day off and go to school and seriously talk to my teacher about my academic performance. Interestingly, my parents will not say a word after meeting my class teacher. They would only say, “OK. Let’s go”. I know they don’t want to put pressure on me. I am grateful for their

trusting me. That helps me to strike even better next term. (NSY 88)

The above excerpts proved that Chinese parents showed their love by providing the best possible opportunities for their children's learning while the children tried to return love by doing their best in school. Children's successful academic achievement is considered as a sign and posture of filial piety to their parents (Mordkowitz and Ginsburg, 1987).

A similar study was done by Fuligni (2001). He studied ethnic variations in academic motivation among 1,000 adolescents from Asian, Latin American, and European backgrounds. He found that a sense of family obligation was associated with greater belief in the value of education and accounts for the tendency of Asian and Latin American adolescents to have greater academic motivation than their equally achieving peers with European backgrounds.

It is also generally recognised that modern Chinese parents place great emphasis on the achievement of their children and children are inevitably influenced by their parents (Bond, 1986, 1991). Chinese parents expect their children to grow up with achievement and competence. Oral character or sociability are of secondary concern (Ho and Kan, 1984; also see Lewis, 1965; McClelland, 1963; Solomon, 1978; Chang, 1979; Ridley, Godwin and Doolin, 1971).

A number of researchers also stated the meaning of achievement is cultural related and this mediates people's achievement significantly (Agarwal & Misra,

1986; Fyans, Salili, Maehr & Desai, 1983; Maehr, 1974; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980, Siu, 1992). Chinese culture is of a typical example. According to Yang (1986), Chinese tend to change from social orientation to individual orientation especially in their need for achievement.

How a family raise their children also has significant impact on children's learning. Shen and Peterson (1999) examined how parental practices in mainland China influence adolescents' school performance, including school motivation and grade point average (GPA). Siu (1993, 1994) also showed how a working class Chinese-American family prepares its only child for school success. This bilingual child of immigrants is successful academically and socially. The importance of high family expectations and the goal directedness of the parents is emphasized, as is the ambivalence the parents feel toward school. Similar studies and findings can be found in Koutsoulis & Campbell (2001) and Chao (1996).

Though it was found that Chinese parents placed strong emphasis on their children's academic results, as shown in the above results, some Chinese do not know how to affectively encourage their children. As Bond (1986: 231) also indicates Chinese's restraining emotion expressions in Chinese culture and "the heightened concern for controlling affect display is consistent with the higher collectivism of ...Hong Kong Chinese cultures. The Chinese counsel against showing joy or sadness functions to maintain harmony by avoiding the imposition of one's feelings on others." Although what Bond described here is about Chinese's restraining emotion expression in the social setting, it also

applies to how Chinese parents interact with their children. Studies have found that most Chinese parent typically did not spend time playing with their kids and the parent-child relationship in communication is that more than half of the Chinese children keep the unhappy feeling to themselves and 24 % of the Chinese secondary school students in Hong Kong do not tell things happened at school to their parents which revealed the distant relationship between Chinese parents and their children (Mitchell, 1972a, 1972b). In Huang's (1976) work, the results found that rejecting, harsh, and inconsistent parental attitudes were associated with social adjustment in secondary school students in Taiwan. Lau Sing and his co-workers have shown in their study that Chinese associate a dominating style of control with lower level of parental warmth (cited in Bond, 1991). (Also see Florsheim, 1997; Fuligni, Yip & Tseng, 2002)

After examining each sub-motivational component under parent-specific motivational component, one cannot deny the significant role of NAHK students' parents play in their children's education. According to the descriptive statistics found in Table 29, the mean score of parent-specific motivational component is 3.470, which is the lowest of all. However, the descriptive data is deceptive on the surface because education background of the NAHK students' parents has largely contributed to the low mean of parent-specific motivational components. If education background is to be excluded in this component, the mean score of parent-specific motivation will be 3.830, which will be placed fourth after culture-specific motivational component.

Exploring further on the parent-specific sub-motivational components and giving NAHK students an in-depth interview helped the researcher to look into the true face of the learning situation of the NAHK students. Therefore, the second hypothesis of this study, “Parents play a significant role in influencing NAHK students’ motivation to learn English” cannot be refuted. The statistical results are not yet conclusive though, they remind the researcher of the importance and advantage of using triangulation research methods to complement areas that by using only one research method cannot spot.

5.2.5 Factors affecting students’ motivation to learn English:

- **Teachers as English learning facilitator**

After analyzing the two hypotheses relating to culture and parents, this section will continue looking at another significant factor in English learning. That is, teachers’ influence on NAHK students’ motivation. According to Bond (1991, p.29), Chinese students usually treat teachers with respect, silence and fear. Chinese students see their teachers as their role model. Previous studies have also found that teachers have direct influence on learners’ motivation (*Christophel 1990; Frymier 1993; Christophel & Gorham 1995 & Wentzel 1998*).

In this section, the researcher would like to look at how teachers can act as a motivator to help NAHK students to learn English in Hong Kong.

According to the following table, teacher-specific motivational components are found to be the most significant factor in affecting NAHK students’ motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. The mean score received is 4.174 and the standard deviation is 0.947. Teacher-specific motivational component received the highest mean and lowest standard deviation among all components. The standard deviation shows that teacher-specific motivational sub-component is the only one that most NAHK students have homogenous and collective responses.

Table 34 *Mean and SD of specific motivational components 4*

Rank	Specific motivational components	Mean	SD
1	<i>Teacher-specific motivational components</i>	<i>4.174</i>	<i>0.947</i>
2	Group-specific motivational components	4.098	0.961
3	Culture-specific motivational components	3.885	1.040
4	Course-specific motivational components	3.778	1.139
5	Parent-specific motivational components	3.470	1.178

- **Direct socialisation**

To explore the reasons behind NAHK students' responses toward teachers' influence on their motivation to learn English, one has to look at the individual motivational component under this category. Direct socialisation, authority type and affiliative motive are under teacher-specific motivational component. Among them, direct socialisation of motivation receives the highest mean and the lowest standard deviation which means the result is reliable in terms of reflecting NAHK students' responses. Direct socialisation, according to Dornyei (2001: 80), means "teacher can exert a direct systematic motivational influence by means of actively socialising the learners' motivation through modelling, task presentation and feedback." Authority type and affiliative motive are placed second and third respectively after direct socialisation of motivation.

Table 35 *Mean and SD of teacher specific motivational components by rank*

Rank	Teacher-specific motivational components	Mean	SD
1	Direct socialization of motivation	4.293	0.878
2	Authority type	4.170	1.019
3	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)	4.060	0.945
Average		4.174	0.947

Table 36 *Mean and SD of teacher specific motivational components*

Teacher-specific motivational components	Item	Questionnaire question	Mean	SD
Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)				
	15	I want to pass my English because I do not want to disappoint my teacher.	3.908	0.932
	39	If I can master English well, my teacher will have a better impression of me.	4.211	0.958
	Average		4.060	0.945
Authority type				
• Democratic type	31	Teacher who are more democratic can motivate me learn English.	4.257	0.797
	23	I can learn better English if my English teacher controls me less.	4.083	1.241
	Average		4.170	1.019
Direct Socialization of Motivation				
• Modelling	7	I want to speak good English like my English teacher does.	4.806	0.884

	3	I want to communicate well with foreigners like my English teacher does.	4.982	1.138
Sub-average			4.894	1.011
• Task Presentation	11	My English teacher presents clearly when he/she asks us to perform a task.	4.073	0.790
	19	I understand my English teacher's instructions.	3.817	0.944
Sub-average			3.945	0.867
• Feedback	27	The feedback my English teacher gives me relating to my work and learning progress is useful for my learning.	4.046	0.842
	35	Feedback from teachers encourages me learning English.	4.110	0.697
	43	The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students help me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English.	3.963	0.729
Sub-average			4.040	0.759
Average			4.293	0.878

Under teacher-specific motivation, “direct socialisation of motivation” is the most important factor that motivates NAHK students to learn English, according to table 34. NAHK students in the interviews explained that “understanding the rules of the new game” and “knowing how to play it” are the reasons why direct socialisation of motivation is a crucial factor for their English learning. The following excerpts represent their views:

TLK: I know that I have to know how Hong Kong education system works first in order to understand the rules of the new game. Getting to know the teachers will enable me to knowing the rules of the game, then I will be able to know how to play it and play it well. What is considered to be good in Mainland China might not necessarily mean that it is equally good in Hong Kong. (TLK 68)

HHM: Getting to know the teachers well can help me know myself better. Teachers are all very busy in Hong Kong. If you don't get to know them, they will never be able to know what you need. Instead of being reactive, I would rather to be proactive. (HHM 68)

- **Modelling**

Modelling, task presentation and feedback are the three sub-components under “direct socialisation of motivation” which is the most important element contributing to the teacher’s influence.

According to table 34, modelling is the key element of all under both teacher-specific motivation and the motivational sub-component “direct socialisation of motivation”. This interesting figure deserves attention and effort to be explored. On the basis of the NAHK students’ interviews, one can conclude that “modelling” is in fact the “ultimate goal” of NAHK students’ learning English in Hong Kong because they believe if they can master English the way their teacher does, they are “fully localised”.

The following excerpts show the importance of “modelling” to the NAAK students.

NSY: I want to speak like the way my teacher speaks. She is also from Hong Kong but she speaks like a native speaker and she has no Cantonese accent. I really like the way she speaks English. Speaking like the way she does is my ultimate goal. (NSY 96)

TLK: The way I speak English can easily isolate me from my local friends in Hong Kong, they speak English with Cantonese accent and I speak with mainland accent. If my teacher can help me correct my accent, then I will be fully localised. (TLK 73)

To further investigate how teachers affect NAAK students’ motivation to learn English in Hong Kong, there is a need to look at individual motivational components and see how NAAK students rate each of them. Motivational components are ranked according to the level of importance to NAAK students.

Table 37 *SD and mean of teacher specific motivational components by rank*

Rank	Teacher-specific motivational components	Item	Questionnaire question	Mean	SD
1	Direct Socialization of Motivation -- Modelling	3	I want to communicate well with foreigners like my English teacher does.	4.982	1.138
2	Direct Socialization of Motivation -- Modelling	7	I want to speak good English like my English teacher does.	4.806	0.884

3	Authority type -- democratic type	31	Teacher who are more liberal can motivate me learn English.	4.257	0.797
4	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)	39	If I can master English well, my teacher will have a better impression of me.	4.211	0.958
5	Direct Socialization of Motivation -- Feedback	35	Feedback from teachers encourages me learning English.	4.110	0.697
6	Authority type -- democratic type	23	I can learn better English if my English teacher controls me less.	4.083	1.241
7	Direct Socialization of Motivation -- Task Presentation	11	My English teacher presents clearly when he/she asks us to perform a task.	4.073	0.790
8	Direct Socialization of Motivation -- Feedback	27	The feedback my English teacher gives me relating to my work and learning progress is useful for my learning.	4.046	0.842
9	Direct Socialization of Motivation -- Feedback	43	The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students help me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English.	3.963	0.729
10	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)	15	I want to pass my English because I do not want to disappoint my teacher.	3.908	0.932
11	Direct Socialization of Motivation -- Task Presentation	19	I understand my English teacher's instructions.	3.817	0.944

According to the above table, there are eight items out of eleven receive a mean score of over 4.000. The two motivational sub-components receive the highest means both belong to modelling, which signifies the importance of modelling to NAHK students when they learn English and has already been discussed previously.

- **Liberal teachers**

Descriptive result also shows that NAHK students also prefer liberal teachers to teach them English. The item “Teacher who are more liberal can motivate me learn English” in the questionnaire receives a mean score of 4.257 and 0.797 as standard deviation. The figures are on par with the item placed on the sixth—“ I can learn better English if my English teacher controls me less”.

Previous studies showed that teachers can bring direct influence on students’ learning. In Winter’s (1990) findings, students found that teachers were rather strict in maintaining control over the class, and that the rules to be followed were clearly laid down. Chinese students were also found to be more successful if they are taught by teachers reported as less controlling.

However, d’Ailly’s (2001, 2003) previous studies found that perceived control is shown to have an all positive influence on student’s academic outcome.

However, autonomy as defined by student’s motivation orientation appears to be a double-edged sword; although the total effect of autonomy on children’s academic achievement is positive, the model shows that without the mediation

of perceived control, a high level of autonomy can actually have a significant negative impact on student's achievement.

In this study, NAAK students in general prefer teachers who are less controlling.

The following quotes show an inside picture of the type of teachers NAAK students desire to teach them and explain the impact a liberal minded English teacher can bring them.

LTY: I think what my English teacher does is correct, but I think she controls our learning too much. She would not let us go home without any assignment. That is, I don't have the spare time to read or do anything I myself like. (LTY 116)

LSS: My English teacher controls every behaviour we do in the classroom. We are not allowed to make noises, discuss or do other kinds of activities except those she instructs us to do at the time of being. Sometimes when I want to discuss what she has taught us with my friend, I can't, because she wants absolute silence in her classroom. By the time she allows us to talk, I have forgotten what I want to talk about already. (LSS 88)

NSY: My English teacher likes controlling us how to learn a lot. She thinks the way she wants us to learn is the best. Yes, she may be right but every one has their own way of studying and learning.

Should a teacher allow more freedom to students so that they have room to do whatever they like to improve their English? I always wanted to read “Princess Dairies” but I never did because my teacher wants us to read “Harry Potter”. (NSY 104)

- **Affiliative motive**

To understand why NAHK students give positive responses to the two questions related to affiliative motive to please teacher—“*If I can master English well, my teacher will have a better impression of me*”, further interviews were conducted to explore in further details of the psychological impact Hong Kong teachers bring NAHK students.

Interview responses show that teachers can accelerate the process of “social integration and normalisation”. NAHK students believed that praises from teachers not only help them gain positive impression from teachers but also the local counterparts. The following are the representative quotations from NAHK students that explain the importance of teachers’ good impression on them.

NSY: Yes, I see teachers’ feedback as very important because that is how I know how well I do in her mind. My English teacher is also my class teacher. It is important to have a good relationship with her. If she praises me in front of the class, I think my local friends will have a better impression of me and my other NAHK friends. I want to prove them that students

from Mainland China can do well too. (NSY 110)

HHM: Teachers' praise is definitely important to me because through her praise, I know I can do it well, just like any other local Hong Kong classmates do. Through her praise, I can feel that me and my friends who came from Mainland China also have my teachers' attention and our teachers know our needs.
(HHM 71)

- **Teachers' feedback**

The last two items under teacher related motivation that receive mean scores over 4.000 are both related to teachers' feedback coincidentally. The two questions asked in the questionnaire are "*Feedback from teachers encourages me to learn English*" and "*The feedback my English teacher gives me relating to my work and learning progress is useful for my learning*" while "task presentation" is relatively considered to be a less significant powerful factor that can spark off NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

NAHK students in the interview explained how teachers' feedback motivate them to learn English.

TLK: Without teacher feedback, I would not be able to know my progress, my improvement and I would not be able to know how well or how poor I did in comparison with others. I am

lucky to have an English teacher who is very frank with me and she will tell me things like, “You can get very high grades in other science subjects in HKCEE, but I am worried that you might fail in your English.” From that minute on, I know I should put my effort on improving English. I really have to thank my English teacher for giving me genuine feedback and advice. (TLK 102)

HHM: My English had never been good in Mainland China, so I don’t expect I would have great improvement in my English after coming to Hong Kong. However, one day, my English teacher said to me that I had improvement in my sentence writing. I was thrilled because I did put some effort on writing those sentences. I did not expect my teacher that she would be able to spot the difference. However, when she said that to me, I was very much encouraged because I know she cares about my progress and that is something that keeps me going. (HHM 84)

Based on the previous section’s analysis, the hypothesis set for this study—“Teachers serves an important role in motivating NAHK students to learn English” can be supported both from the perspectives of statistics and qualitative data.

- **Interim summary**

In the previous sections, NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong have been examined and explored in detail. The general motivation of NAHK students' English learning has been found to be relatively positive (M: 3.994 SD: 1.076).

Under the major three motivation dimensions, learner level and learning situation level are found to be the most and the least influential in affecting NAHK students' motivation respectively. The major reason for this is NAHK students have very strong inclination to use English as a tool to climb up the social ladder in the hope that they can better settle in Hong Kong.

Several hypotheses set to be tested in this study have been supported. Teacher-related factors are found to be significantly influential in NAHK students' motivation to learn English because NAHK students consider teachers' modelling is both their first task and ultimate goal to be achieved and accomplished.

Cultural reasons are of less importance though it has been widely believed that social integration serves the main purpose for NAHK students' learning English.

In the above section, parents are also found to be influential though statistics show that parent-specific motivational components are the least significant in affecting students' motivation to learn English. Although the statistical results

show that parents play the least significant role in affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English, it has also been found that parents education background is the main factor contribute to the low mean score. Despite the poor educational background of the parents of NAHK students, NAHK students' parents in fact affectively encourage their children to learn English and they also give them full financial support to improve their English regardless of their low income.

5.3 Demographic factors influencing motivation to learn English

After describing the general picture of NAHK students' motivation to learn English based on the modified Dornyei's (2001) motivation framework, there is a need to look at how NAHK students' personal background affect their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. As the background of NAHK students are diverse, it is hard to generalise the above statistical and interview results as conclusive conclusions.

In this section, a number of personal variables will be looked at in relation to NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. The reason for investigating the relationship between their NAHK background and their learning motivation background is because of the uniqueness and the diversity of the NAHK students' background. Gender, place of birth, length of stay, age and school form attending are the five characteristics in this section to be investigated.

In this study, the researcher hypothesised that girls will have stronger motivation to learn English than boys. NAHK students who used to live in Guangdong will also see learning English more positively. This study also hypothesised that the longer the NAHK students have been staying in Hong Kong, their motivation to learn English will also be stronger. By the same virtue, NAHK students will have stronger motivation to learn English as they grow older and attend higher school forms.

In this study, age and school form attending are categorised as two discrete demographic characteristics. The reason for doing so is that school form attending is not necessarily an indicator of NAHK students' age as there are many cases in which NAHK students are of different ages but they study in the same class. Therefore, the reliability and validity of this study can be secured if the two demographic characteristics are to be separately analysed.

In the following analysis, the procedures for exploring the hypotheses are to look at the descriptive data based on Dornyei's motivational framework. The first item to be examined is to look at the average mean score tested by the whole motivation framework under the categories of different genders, places of birth, school forms attending and age groups first. The mean scores of different motivational dimensions will then be compared with NAHK demographic background. Lastly, motivation components are also to be compared under the same categories. By following the above procedures, a microscopic picture of how NAHK students' demographic factors relate to their motivation to learn English can be revealed.

5.3.1 Gift of language: Girls only?

There has been a myth about whether females have better gift of language than the males. Ample studies have been done previously to try reveal the secret of the mystery. Previous researches have not yet reached any conclusive results as results found are still contradicting one another. Hagborg (1995) indicated that there were no significant gender differences on the mastery motivation

component or intrinsic motivation. Meece & Jones (1996) also examined gender differences in fifth- and sixth-grade students' self-reports of confidence, motivation goals, and learning strategies in whole-class and small- group sessions. Overall, results revealed few gender differences and indicated that students report greater confidence and mastery motivation in small-group lessons. (Also see Bar-Tal et al, 1984; Kinicki et al, 1985; Chandler et al, 1983). Chandler et al (1983, p.253) in the work stated, 'The fact that the differences ...were generally small leads one to question the meaningfulness of these differences except perhaps in selected instances'.

However, attempts have also been made to explain sex differences in motivation. There are two streams of results claiming there are gender differences in learning motivation. Some state females have stronger motivation and some state the opposite. Wong (2000) found that girls have stronger intrinsic motivation compare with male students while males have a stronger extrinsic motivation compared with female students. However, Boggiano & Barrett (1992) found some different results from Wong's (2000). Their results indicated that females are more often extrinsically motivated and more often depressed than males. Males are intrinsically motivated and have fewer incidents of depression than females. Other previous research can be found in Basow & Medcalf, 1988; Erkut, 1983; McHugh et al, 1982; Post 1981; Sweeny et al, 1982 and Wolleat et al, 1980; Brandon 1990; Niemivirta 1997, Wang & Staver 1997.

- **General motivation: Girls are stronger**

To examine the myth of whether girls have the gift of language and they possess stronger motivation to learn English in the context of this current study, the following table shows the average of boys and girls’ motivation to learn English.

The results of an analysis of the differences between male and female NAHK students’ motivation to learn English was analysed by using *t*-test and effect size. The aim is to examine and evaluate if there is any significant difference between male and female NAHK students who have different pattern of motivation to learn English and to decide “the degree to which the phenomenon is present in the population” (Cohen, 1988, p.9), therefore effects size is calculated. The effect size is used to express the magnitude of a “difference in means in standard deviation units”. According to Cohen (1988), an effect size of 0.20 us regarded as small, 0.25 is medium, and 0.80 is large. However, the term “small”, “medium” and “large” are relative as it depends on the methods and content of the study. Results are presented in Table 38.

Table 38 *Comparison of girls and boys’ overall motivation*

Mean			SD			<i>t</i> -test		
All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	df	<i>t</i> -value	Significance
<i>N</i> =109	<i>N</i> =56	<i>N</i> =53	<i>N</i> =109	<i>N</i> =56	<i>N</i> =53			
3.994	3.775	4.225	1.091	1.025	1.161	106.675	-3.282	0.001

According to the above table, NAHK girls are found to have stronger motivation to learn English in Hong Kong than boys. Girls have a higher mean score of 4.225 while boys received a mean score of 3.775. Deviation between the opinion of the groups' respondents are similar as their standard deviations are close. Motivation to learn English between boys and girls are of significant difference ($t = -3.282, p < 0.001$). That is, motivation to learn English for NAHK boys are very different from the NAHK girls' motivation to learn English.

Table 39 *Comparison of girls and boys' all motivation dimensions*

Motivation Dimension	Motivation component	Motivational sub-components	Mean			SD			t-test		
			All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	df	t-vale	Significance
			N=109	n=56	n=53	N=109	n=56	n=53			
Language level		Integrative motivational subsystem	3.637	3.333	3.958	1.135	1.088	1.185	106.481	-2.964	0.004
		Instrumental motivational subsystem	4.239	4.011	4.480	0.967	0.994	0.934	106.573	-2.590	NS
		Average	3.938	3.672	4.219	1.051	1.041	1.062	106.266	-3.410	NS
Learner level		Need for achievement	4.468	4.226	4.724	1.014	1.017	1.011	106.991	-2.633	NS
		Self-confidence	3.856	3.579	4.149	1.232	1.028	1.448	105.070	-1.895	NS
		Average	4.162	3.903	4.436	1.123	1.023	1.229	106.356	-3.299	0.001

Learning situation level	Course-specific motivational components	Interests to the course	3.778	3.625	3.940	1.139	1.122	1.157	105.242	1.886	NS
		Relevance of the course to one's needs	4.169	4.062	4.282	1.038	1.036	1.124	106.680	-1.159	NS
		Expectancy of success	3.890	3.589	4.208	1.123	1.018	1.234	103.799	-2.976	0.004
		Satisfaction one has in the outcome	3.276	3.107	3.455	1.215	0.991	1.452	106.664	-1.820	NS
		Average	3.778	3.586	3.981	1.139	1.015	1.270	104.025	-2.433	NS
	Teacher-specific motivational components	Affiliative motive to please teacher	4.060	3.883	4.247	0.945	0.919	0.972	106.292	-2.025	NS
		Authority type	4.170	4.116	4.227	1.019	0.986	1.054	105.323	-0.563	NS
		Direct Socialisation of motivation	4.293	4.079	4.519	0.878	0.865	0.892	106.930	-2.681	NS
		Average	4.174	4.026	4.330	0.947	0.923	0.972	105.387	-0.303	NS
	Group-specific motivational components	Goal-orientations	4.453	4.142	4.782	1.043	1.016	1.072	106.977	-3.333	0.001
		Norm & reward system	3.970	3.678	4.279	0.970	0.964	0.976	106.607	-3.371	0.001

		Group cohesion	4.306	4.101	4.523	0.876	0.838	0.916	106.122	-2.574	NS
		Classroom goal structure	3.664	3.565	3.769	0.954	0.946	0.962	106.524	-1.106	NS
		Average	4.098	3.872	4.337	0.961	0.941	0.982	105.920	-3.204	0.002
	Parent-specific motivation components	Education background	2.744	2.785	2.701	1.209	1.201	1.217	106.392	0.377	NS
		Financial support	3.890	4.008	3.765	1.304	1.241	1.371	104.588	0.904	NS
		Affective encouragement't	3.777	3.761	3.794	1.021	0.954	1.092	103.257	-0.156	NS
		Average	3.470	3.518	3.419	1.178	1.132	1.030	102.476	0.582	NS
	Culture-specific motivational components		3.885	3.946	3.821	1.040	1.047	1.037	103.795	-0.287	NS
		Average	3.885	3.946	3.821	1.040	1.047	1.037	103.795	-0.287	NS
	Learning situation Average		3.881	3.790	3.977	1.053	1.012	1.193	105.120	-2.075	NS
	Average of all levels and components		3.994	3.788	4.212	1.091	1.076	1.130	106.675	-3.282	0.001

- **Again, girls are stronger at three motivation dimensions and different motivation components**

After knowing that NAHK girls possess stronger motivation to learn English than the boys in general, it is necessary to know whether boys have weaker motivation to learn English on all levels. The above statistical result is not yet conclusive to support the hypothesis of this study. A closer look at how boys and girls’ motivation are different from each other at the level of language level, learner level and learning situation level is therefore the focus of this section.

Table 40 *Comparison of girls and boys’ motivation on motivation dimension*

Motivation Dimension	Mean			SD			t-test		
	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	df	t-value	Significance
	N=109	N=56	N=53	N=109	N=56	N=53			
Language level	3.938	3.672	4.219	1.051	1.041	0.934	106.266	-3.410	NS
Learners level	4.162	3.903	4.436	1.123	1.023	1.229	106.356	-3.299	NS
Learning situation level	3.881	3.790	3.977	1.053	1.012	1.193	105.120	-2.075	NS

Under different motivation dimensions, it is not difficult to see the result in fact parallel the general result found in the last section—girls have stronger motivation to learn English than boys at all levels. There is no significant difference between their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong, according to the *t*-test results.

Next, an examination to see how boys and girls are different on the motivation component is necessary. The following table shows the results.

Table 41 *Comparison of girls and boys' specific motivation components*

Motivation component	Mean			SD			<i>t</i> -test		
	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls	df	<i>t</i> -value	Significance
	N=109	N=56	N=53	N=109	N=56	N=53			
Course-specific motivational components	3.778	3.586	3.981	1.139	1.015	1.270	104.025	-2.433	NS
Teacher-specific motivational components	4.174	4.026	4.330	0.947	0.923	0.972	105.387	-0.303	NS
Group-specific motivational components	4.098	3.872	4.337	0.961	0.941	0.982	105.920	-3.204	0.002
Parent-specific motivation components	3.470	3.518	3.419	1.178	1.132	1.030	102.476	0.582	NS
Culture-specific motivational components	3.885	3.626	4.159	1.040	1.047	1.037	103.795	-0.287	NS

In the previous section, girls are found to have stronger motivation under the level of learning situation level with no significant difference. According to the above table, girls are found to have stronger motivation under most of the motivation components under learning situation level except parent-specific motivation component. Most motivation components between boys and girls are found to be statistically non-significant different from each other, except group-specific motivation component ($t=3.204, p<0.002$). That is, apart from group-specific motivation component, boys and girls have similar motivation pattern in respect to the situation-related motivation pattern. Group-specific motivation components are found to be significantly different, it means boys and girls view the role peers play differently.

The reason for parent-specific motivation being the only component that male NAHK students have stronger motivation is self-evident. Parent related factors under parent-specific motivation components include education background, financial support and affective encouragement. In this case, one can expect female NAHK students' parents have relatively lower education and income which attribute to the low mean score of parent-specific motivational component. In the previous study, parents' affective encouragement was found to be significant to the overall mean of parent-specific motivational component. This statistical result was strongly supported by students' interview (see section 5.2). The reason for boys having stronger parent-specific motivational component can be explained by the following table. The following cross

tabulation tables show that boys’ parents have stronger education background and their income is also higher than that of the girls.

Table 42 *Gender and parent's education cross-tabulation*

		Parent's Education					Total
		University	Secondary	Primary	No formal education	Don't know	
Gender	Male	2	32	6	2	14	56
	Female	1	31	9	3	9	53
Total		3	63	15	5	23	109

Table 43 *Gender and family income cross-tabulation*

		Family Income					Total
		Below \$5000	\$5001 to \$10000	\$10001 to \$15000	\$15001 to \$20000	Over \$20000	
Gender	Male	7	35	8	5	1	56
	Female	4	41	7	1	0	53
Total		11	76	15	6	1	109

- Interim summary**

After testing female and male NAHK students’ motivation to learn English respectively, the hypothesis set for this study stand. That is, female NAHK students do have stronger motivation to learn English in general. A closer look at different motivation dimensions also reveals girls also hold stronger motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. A further look at the motivational component reveals that male NAHK students are found to have stronger

motivation to learn English in relation to parents-specific factors, though statistically non-significant, because of the relatively higher education background the male NAHK students' parents have.

5.3.2 Neighbours of Hong Kong: More motivated for English acquisition?

In the last section, NAHK students' gender was tested against their motivation to learn English. In this section, NAHK's place of birth is the next demographic factor to be tested against their English learning motivation.

In this study, the variables of place of birth were classified as two different categories. They are Guangdong (GD hereafter) and provinces or cities other than Guangdong.

By the same testing procedure as the above sections, the overall descriptive statistics will be presented to see the general pattern of how NAHK students' place of birth affected their motivation. Then, how students' place of birth affect their English learning motivation will be examined next. Finally, how place of birth affect motivation at the level of situational related motivational components is last to be investigated.

Table 44 *Comparison of place of birth and overall motivation*

Average Mean	Mean			SD			t-test		
	All	GD	Others	All	GD	Others	df	t-vale	Significance
	N=109	n=96	n=13	N=109	n=96	n=13			
	3.994	4.002	3.935	1.067	1.043	1.320	13.398	0.874	NS

From the above table, it is evident that NAHK students who were born in Guangdong and any other places outside Guangdong have similar motivation to learn English as their mean scores are very close though NAHK students who were born in Guangdong still have slightly stronger motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. According to the *t*-test results, it has been shown that NAHK students of different places of birth have no significant difference between their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. However, their standard deviations have slight differences. Guangdong students are believed to have a more homogeneous opinion (SD: 1.043) about learning English while NAHK students who were born outside Guangdong hold more diverse opinions towards English learning (SD: 1.320).

On the surface, the hypothesis of this study claiming NAHK students who were from Guangdong stands because the average mean is higher than that of NAHK students' from other provinces. However, it is still necessary to look into details as to whether NAHK students who were born in Guangdong have stronger motivation to learn English at other motivational levels.

To further examine how NAHK students' places of birth affect their motivation to learn English, motivation dimension is the first level to be tested against this demographic factor and see how it will be different from the general result stated above.

Table 45 *Comparison of place of birth on all motivation dimensions*

Motivation Dimension	Mean			SD			t-test		
	All	GD	Others	All	GD	Others	df	t-value	Significance
	N=109	n=96	n=13	N=109	n=96	n=13			
Language level	3.938	4.004	3.786	1.051	1.027	1.228	13.823	0.795	NS
Learner level	4.162	4.181	4.022	1.123	1.055	1.625	13.521	0.733	NS
Learning situation level	3.881	3.844	3.846	1.053	1.048	1.090	13.679	0.842	NS

According to the above table, the descriptive data echo the general result that NAHK students who were born in Guangdong have stronger motivation and there is no significant difference between their learning motivation. Again, the mean score of each level are close. The mean score differences are less than 0.200. The motivational level that receives the greatest mean score difference is language level while learning situation level shares a very close mean score. Again, the hypothesis being tested still stands according to the above statistical analysis even though the study has taken a step further to testify whether NAHK students who were born in Guangdong possess stronger motivation to learn English.

The next motivational level to be given further attention is the motivation component under learning situation level. According to the following table, NAHK students who were born outside Guangdong are found to have stronger motivation when the learning situation is related to the course and culture while students who were born in Guangdong possess stronger motivation when the learning situations are related to teacher, peers and parents.

It is self-explanatory why students who were born in Guangdong have stronger motivation to learn English in general. It is because geographic differences can be an obstacle to English learning and English has long been a compulsory subject in Guangdong province but other provinces, though not all, are still considering English as a foreign language subject. Students who are from Guangdong certainly can adjust better in Hong Kong and English learning is not unfamiliar for them.

However, two interesting pictures are shown in the following table. One is NAHK students who are not from Guangdong have stronger motivation when the learning situation is related to the course. The other interesting picture is that this group of students also have a stronger motivation when the learning situation is related to culture. A closer examination of the motivational sub-components under course-specific motivational components can demonstrate an inside story.

It is not difficult to understand why students' who are from outside Guangdong have stronger orientation when learning situation is related to culture. This is probably because students who are not from Guangdong are less familiar with the Hong Kong culture and the syllabus. NAHK students would certainly like to have better social integration by learning English. Therefore, these students would be more interested and strive harder to adjust themselves to settle down. This claim can in fact be supported by the interview responses presented in section 5.2.

Table 46 *Comparison of place of birth and specific motivational components*

Motivation Dimension	Mean			SD			t-test		
	All N=109	GD n=96	Others n=13	All N=109	GD n=96	Others n=13	df	t-vale	Significance
Course-specific motivational components	3.778	3.774	3.808	1.139	1.040	1.870	13.988	-0.178	NS
Teacher-specific motivational components	4.174	4.198	3.997	0.947	0.899	1.301	13.274	0.851	NS
Group-specific motivational components	4.098	4.127	3.884	0.961	0.928	1.205	13.773	1.072	NS
Parent-specific motivational components	3.470	3.507	3.197	1.178	1.187	1.112	15.913	1.163	NS
Culture-specific motivational components	3.885	3.824	4.336	1.040	0.938	1.793	15.617	0.730	NS

To better understand why NAHK students who are from other provinces have stronger motivation in respect to course-related reason, the following table shows us the story. According to the following table, NAHK students who are from other provinces have better confidence in their English learning. The results of the *t*-test also show no significant difference. They might not be satisfied with the learning outcomes they apparently have but they have confidence that in the future they can be successful in English learning. Also, they hold a more positive attitude towards the course because what the course provides is what they would like to learn. This internal state of mind created these statistical results that help educators understand better individual learners' differences even though students are of similar background.

Table 47 *Comparison of place of birth and course-specific motivational components*

Motivation Dimension	Motivation Components	Mean			SD			t-test		
		All N=109	GD n=96	Others n=13	All N=109	GD n=96	Others n=13	df	t-vale	Significance
Course-specific motivational components	Interests in the course	3.778	3.758	3.926	1.139	1.139	1.141	15.134	0.212	NS
	Relevance of the course to one's needs	4.169	4.166	4.191	1.079	1.032	1.426	14.948	-0.197	NS
	Expectancy of success	3.890	3.875	4.000	1.123	1.066	1.544	13.628	-0.286	NS
	Satisfaction one has in the outcome	3.275	3.281	3.231	1.215	1.194	1.370	16.764	0.191	NS

- **Interim summary**

Generally speaking, NAAHK students who are born in Guangdong have stronger motivation to learn English. Therefore, the hypothesis set can be supported.

However, when it comes to specific learning situations, students who were not born in Guangdong were found to have stronger motivation when the learning situations are related to course and culture. Cultural differences serve as a motivator to help students who are not familiar with the Hong Kong culture to learn English. They believe learning English can help them better integrate with the local culture. Also, students who are not born in Guangdong were found to have stronger motivation because they have better confidence in English learning and they have better satisfaction in the course Hong Kong schools offer them.

5.3.3 The longer one stays, the stronger motivation?

Does NAAHK students' length of stay affect their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong? Do students have stronger motivation to learn English in Hong Kong if they stay in Hong Kong long enough? One of the hypotheses set for this study is "The longer the NAAHK students stay in Hong Kong, the stronger the motivation to learn English." In this section, this hypothesis is to be examined.

Table 48 *Year of arrival and student motivation*

Year of arrival	n	Average mean	SD
1997	13	3.621	1.254
1998	19	3.650	1.304
1999	8	4.082	1.404
2000	21	4.089	1.145
2001	11	4.014	1.475
2002	12	4.267	1.372
2003	8	4.011	1.208
2004	17	4.329	1.721

According to the above table, it is clear that NAHK students who came to Hong Kong before 1999 have weaker motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. NAHK students who received mean scores higher than 4.000 are those who arrived Hong Kong after 1999. The hypothesis set is therefore refuted. The students who have the strongest motivation to learn English are those who arrived Hong Kong in year 2002 (M: 4.267, SD: 1.372) and 2004 (M: 4.329, SD: 1.721). Students who arrived Hong Kong between 1999 and 2001 all received a mean score around 4.000 which is lower than 2002 and 2004. Even students who arrived in Hong Kong in 2003 do not have as strong a mean as those arrived in 2002 and 2004, the general pattern is clear. The curve below shows the pattern which gradually goes up.

Table 49 *Year of arrival and NAHK students' motivation at different levels*

Motivation dimension	Year of arrival	n	Mean	Std. deviation
Language level	1997	13	3.807	1.654
	1998	19	3.482	1.317
	1999	8	3.854	1.747
	2000	21	4.127	1.936
	2001	11	4.060	1.889
	2002	12	4.125	1.574
	2003	8	3.895	1.890
	2004	17	4.156	1.468
Learner level	1997	13	3.607	1.902
	1998	19	3.865	1.624
	1999	8	4.281	1.811
	2000	21	4.132	1.544
	2001	11	4.189	1.798
	2002	12	4.479	1.656
	2003	8	4.284	1.766
	2004	17	4.625	1.740
Learning situation level	1997	13	3.450	1.399
	1998	19	3.604	1.678
	1999	8	4.109	1.751
	2000	21	4.008	1.645
	2001	11	3.792	1.585
	2002	12	4.199	1.218
	2003	8	3.857	1.547
	2004	17	4.206	1.697

Year of arrival and NAHK students' motivation

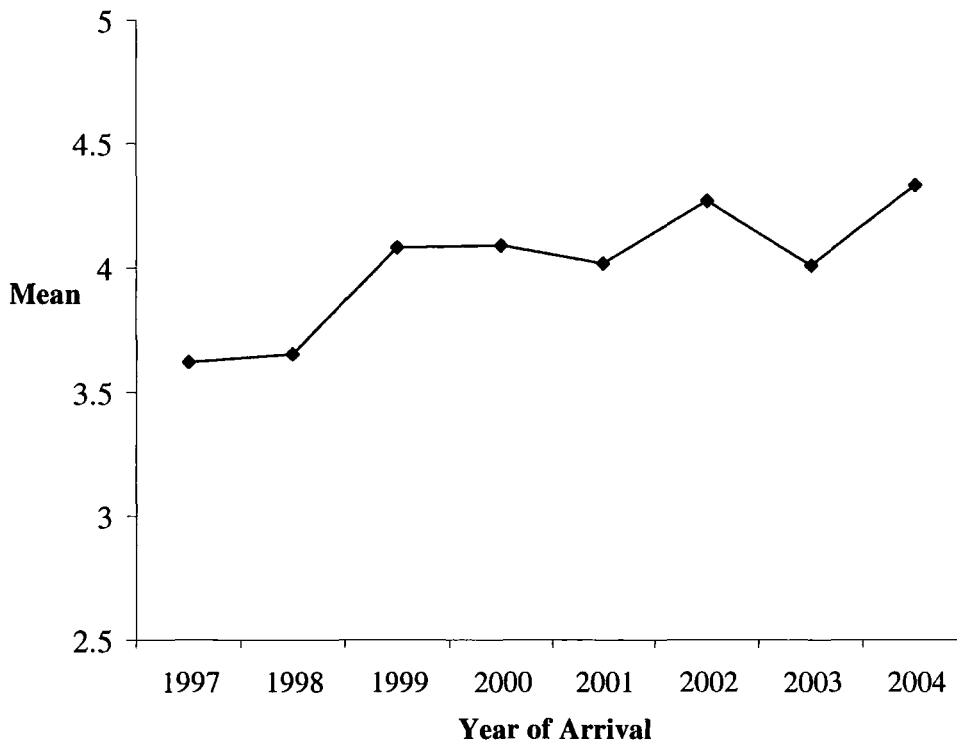


Figure 7 Year of arrival and NAHK students' motivation

From the above graph, the general pattern of NAHK students' motivation and its relations to arrival year is shown. Students who came to Hong Kong before 1999 have relatively weak motivation while students who arrived in between 1999 and 2001 have stronger motivation. However, students who arrived in 2002 and 2004 have the strongest motivation. However, this statistical result is not yet conclusive. Further study on how each arrival year relates to different motivational level needs to be addressed.

After testing the general motivation pattern of the participants, it is next the different motivation dimensions to be tested. According to the following table, NAHK students who arrived in Hong Kong in 2004 have the strongest

motivation. At learner level, students who arrived in 2004 also enjoy the strongest motivation. At learning situation level, students who arrived in 2004 also have the strongest motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. These are indeed interesting results, NAHK students who arrived in Hong Kong in 2004 are the students who are mostly motivated to learn English. This is probably because language is the key to social integration; learning English is most needed when they first arrived Hong Kong (also see results in section 5.2).

How NAHK students' arrival years and their relationships with different motivation sub-components under learning situation is the focus of the next section. A glance at the following table, one can see the results are pointing at different directions which are different from the above. Under the course-specific motivation NAHK students who arrived in Hong Kong in 1999 have the highest mean score of 4.173 and it is very close to the students who arrived in 2004 (M: 4.153). Under the teacher-specific motivation, students who came to Hong Kong in 2004 received the highest mean score of all (M: 4.474). Under group-specific motivation, again, NAHK students who arrived in Hong Kong in 2004 have the highest mean score (M: 4.367). Under parent-specific motivation, NAHK students who arrived in Hong Kong in 2002 have the highest mean score (M: 3.944) which is just above the students who came in 2004 (M: 3.774). Lastly, under culture-specific motivation, students who came in 2002 have the highest mean score (M: 4.032) while students who came in 2004, again, placed second to possess the second highest mean score (M: 3.879).

These interesting results show that students who came to Hong Kong in 2004 have the strongest motivation to learn English though at certain level, their mean scores are placed second highest. Therefore, NAHK students who came to Hong Kong have the strongest motivation to learn English which again does not support the hypothesis of this study that it is not necessarily the case that NAHK students have stronger motivation to learn English if they have stayed in Hong Kong long enough.

Table 50 *Year of arrival and motivation components*

Motivation components	Year of arrival	n	Mean	Std. deviation
course-specific motivational components	1997	13	3.239	1.568
	1998	19	3.497	1.795
	1999	8	4.173	1.875
	2000	21	3.902	1.773
	2001	11	3.616	1.803
	2002	12	4.050	1.311
	2003	8	3.638	1.242
	2004	17	4.153	1.895
teacher-specific motivational components	1997	13	3.736	1.987
	1998	19	3.859	1.859
	1999	8	4.288	1.905
	2000	21	4.352	1.681
	2001	11	4.101	1.675
	2002	12	4.386	1.546
	2003	8	4.187	1.748
	2004	17	4.174	0.947

group-specific motivational components	1997	13	3.621	1.962
	1998	19	3.815	1.731
	1999	8	4.343	1.846
	2000	21	4.206	1.411
	2001	11	4.022	1.628
	2002	12	4.361	1.377
	2003	8	4.145	1.796
	2004	17	4.367	1.207
parent-specific motivational components	1997	13	3.145	1.974
	1998	19	3.175	1.828
	1999	8	3.555	1.910
	2000	21	3.505	1.000
	2001	11	3.353	1.450
	2002	12	3.944	1.792
	2003	8	3.361	1.594
	2004	17	3.774	1.627
culture-specific motivational components	1997	13	3.186	1.042
	1998	19	3.248	1.305
	1999	8	3.724	1.547
	2000	21	3.551	1.395
	2001	11	3.508	1.480
	2002	12	4.032	1.847
	2003	8	3.636	1.646
	2004	17	3.879	1.156

- **Interim summary**

This section has shown that the hypothesis set for this study that “The longer the NAHK students stay in Hong Kong, the stronger the motivation to learn English” Is not supported by the data. The above results found that NAHK students who arrived in Hong Kong after 1999 enjoyed stronger motivation in learning English especially students who had arrived just in Hong Kong at the point of the data collected. In other words, NAHK students’ motivation may go weaker as time goes by after their arrival in Hong Kong. However, the results of this section are rather inconclusive because NAHK students possess a different and inconsistent motivation pattern under different situation-specific motivations.

5.3.4 The older the more motivated?

So far, several NAHK students’ demographic characteristics have been tested against their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. They are: gender, place of birth and years of arrival. Another demographic characteristic to be examined is the age of NAHK students. Whether the older the NAHK students are, the stronger their motivation to learn English is the focus of this section.

Before examining how age relates to NAHK students’ motivation to learn English, one has to bear in mind the number of respective analyses will be fairly extensive because of the age distribution of the participants. Participants of this

study aged from 13 to 22 meaning there will be ten sub-sections to examine how each individual age group has different motivation to learn English. It is also important to include all analyses in this section as age is always regarded as an important factor which affects students' motivation to learn English. Implications of teaching for different age group can hence be drawn based on individual analysis.

Previous researches have demonstrated the effect of age on learners' motivation. One of their first studies by Weiner and Peter (1973) showed that among younger children, achievement was evaluated primarily by outcome. With increasing development, effort expenditure became the principal determinant of evaluation. However, with still further development, outcome became the main evaluative concern again. Weisz et al. (1982) also found younger children are egocentric and usually overestimate their own personal control therefore more internal attributions may also be expected. Later, Igoe & Sullivan (1991) found that older students take less responsibility for their learning, desire less personal challenge, care less about the approval of others, and feel less school-related competence compared to younger children.

According to the following table, NAHK students who are aged under 15 all have a relatively weak mean score (lower than 4.000) and those who are aged older than 16 or above, their means are higher and motivation is stronger. Their means are all above 4.000. NAHK students who are over 20 have higher mean scores, which are over 4.100 (M: 4.376; M: 4.107; M: 4.340). The general

motivation pattern and its relations can be shown by the following curve which shows NAHK students who are older have stronger motivation.

Until this point of data analysis, the hypothesis set can be supported based on the statistical analysis. However, there is a need to look into further details to see whether NAHK students who are older have stronger motivation at other different motivation levels to learn English in Hong Kong.

Table 51 Age and NAHK students' motivation

Age	n	Average Mean	SD
13	5	3.782	1.268
14	14	3.810	1.767
15	14	3.768	1.991
16	18	4.014	1.606
17	18	4.036	1.736
18	16	4.052	1.821
19	11	4.057	1.524
20	9	4.376	1.330
21	2	4.106	1.088
22	1	4.340	0.000

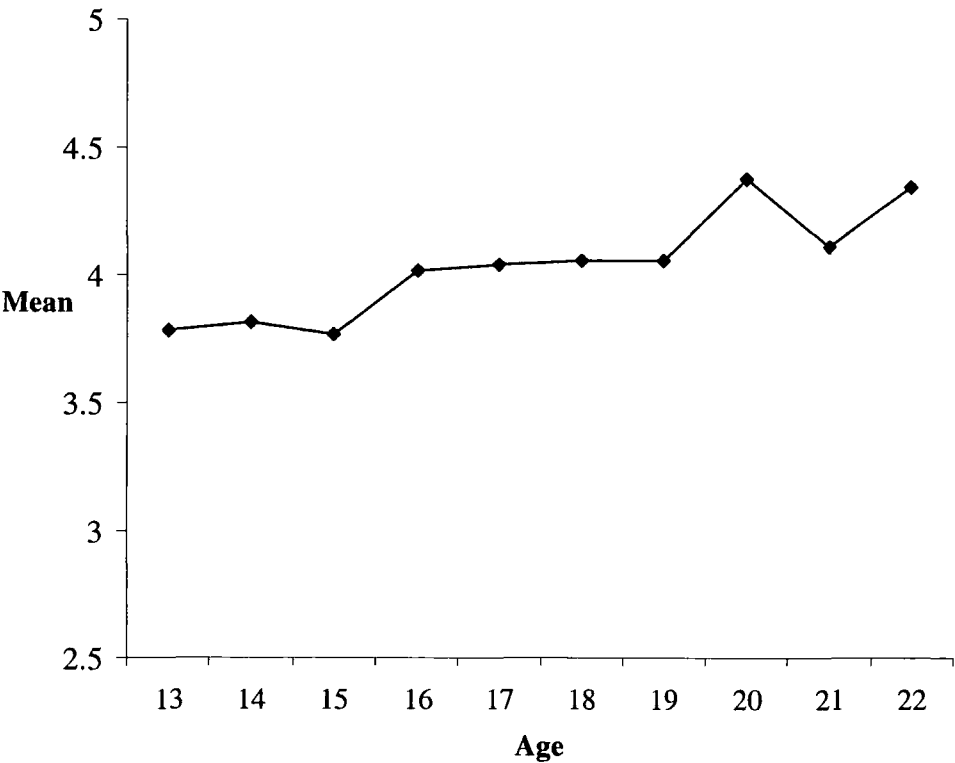


Figure 8 Age and NAHK students' motivation

At the level of motivation dimension, analysis needs to be done on individual motivation levels. The following table shows the results of how age relates to language level. According to the table below, it is clear that NAHK students who are above the age of 20 have the strongest motivation while students under the age of 15 have relatively low motivation to learn English.

Though the mean scores of different age groups do not go higher as the NAHK students' age goes up, the tendency of the general motivation does go up, according to the following curve (see figure 9). The hypothesis being tested stands at language level.

Table 52 Age and NAHK students’ motivation on language level

Motivation dimension-- Language level	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	13	5	3.766	1.534
	14	14	3.773	0.966
	15	14	3.690	1.150
	16	18	3.981	1.787
	17	18	3.851	0.810
	18	16	4.041	1.039
	19	11	3.954	1.624
	20	9	4.314	1.626
	21	2	4.333	1.649
	22	1	4.500	0.000

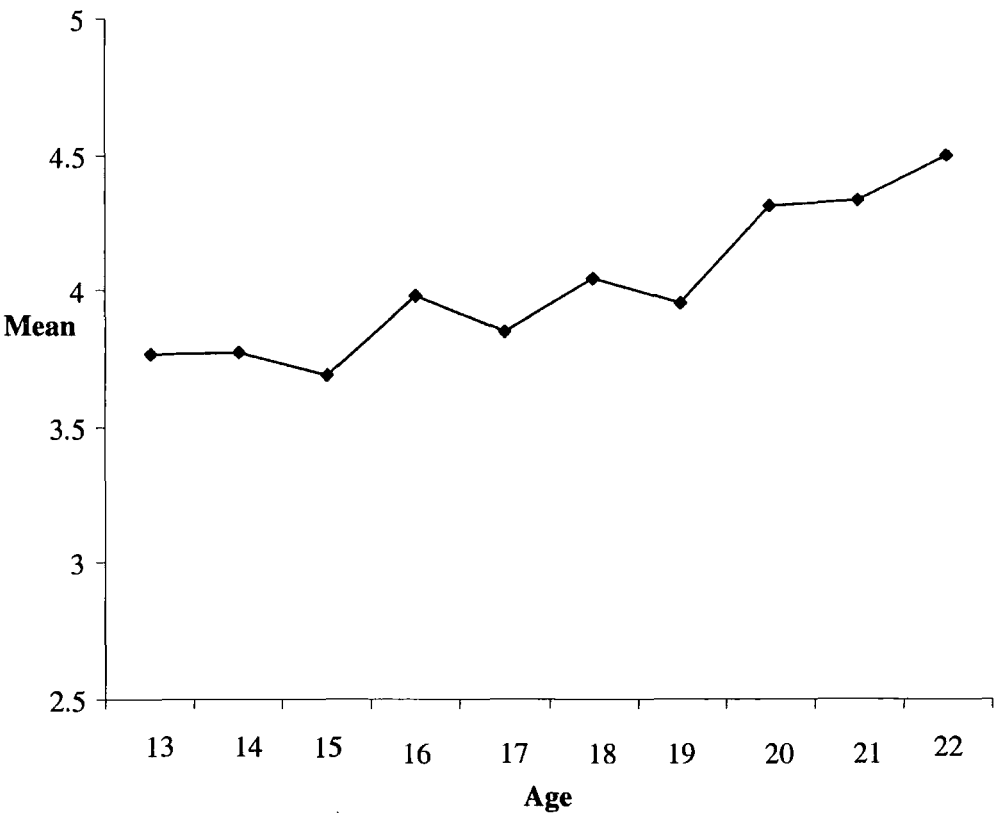


Figure 9 Age and language level

According to the following table, there is a smooth curve that can be generated (see figure 10). NAHK students who are over the age of 16 have strong motivation to learn English at learner level as they all have a mean score of over 4.100 while NAHK students who are under the age of 15 have relatively weaker motivation. Their mean score are lower than 4.000. The following curve also shows the increase of motivation trend as the NAHK students grow older. The hypothesis, therefore at learner level stands.

Previous research like Stipek (1981) has reported that the correlation between the perceived and actual performance is higher, and reflects a more accurate judgment of one's attainment for older children than for younger children.

There is also consistent evidence in different circumstances suggesting that young children are more optimistic about their future performance than the older children and that they generally overrate their competence (e.g. Parsons & Ruble, 1977; Yussen & Berman, 1981). However, these researches only focus on general performance not subject / language focused—English.

Table 53 Age and NAHK students' motivation on learner level

Motivation dimension-- Learner level	Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
	13	5	3.827	1.351
	14	14	3.949	1.870
	15	14	3.884	1.893
	16	18	4.137	1.686
	17	18	4.233	1.885
	18	16	4.263	1.780
	19	11	4.184	1.517
	20	9	4.793	1.350
	21	2	4.222	0.903
	22	1	4.111	0.000

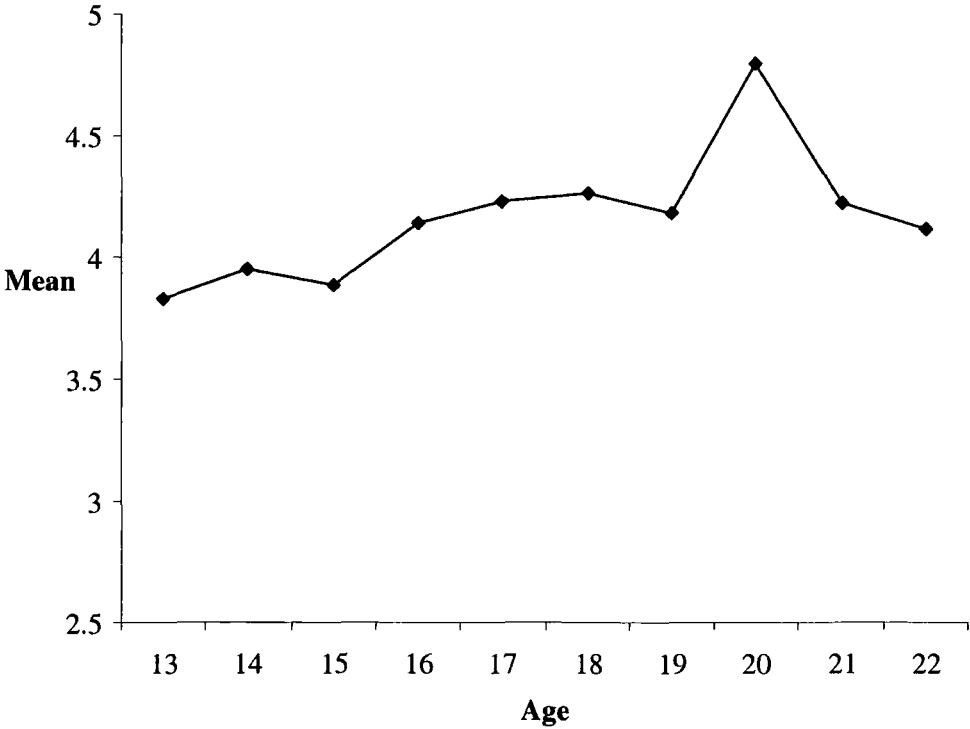


Figure 10 Age and learner level

At the level of learning situation level, the following table shows that NAHK students who are under the age of 15 have the weakest motivation while students over 16 possess stronger motivation to learn English. Their mean scores range from 3.767 to 4.408. Students who are 22 have the strongest motivation to learn English. Though the curve shown in the following is not a curve that goes up as NAHK students' age grow older, statistics show NAHK students who are under the age of 15 possess relatively weaker motivation to learn English while those who are over 15 hold stronger motivation relatively. With the pattern like this, the hypothesis being tested can be supported.

Table 54 Age and NAHK students' motivation on learning situation level

Motivation dimension- Learning situation level	Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
	13	5	3.752	1.261
	14	14	3.707	0.893
	15	14	3.731	1.017
	16	18	3.922	1.658
	17	18	4.026	1.709
	18	16	3.851	1.773
	19	11	4.033	1.540
	20	9	4.022	1.384
	21	2	3.767	1.212
	22	1	4.408	0.000

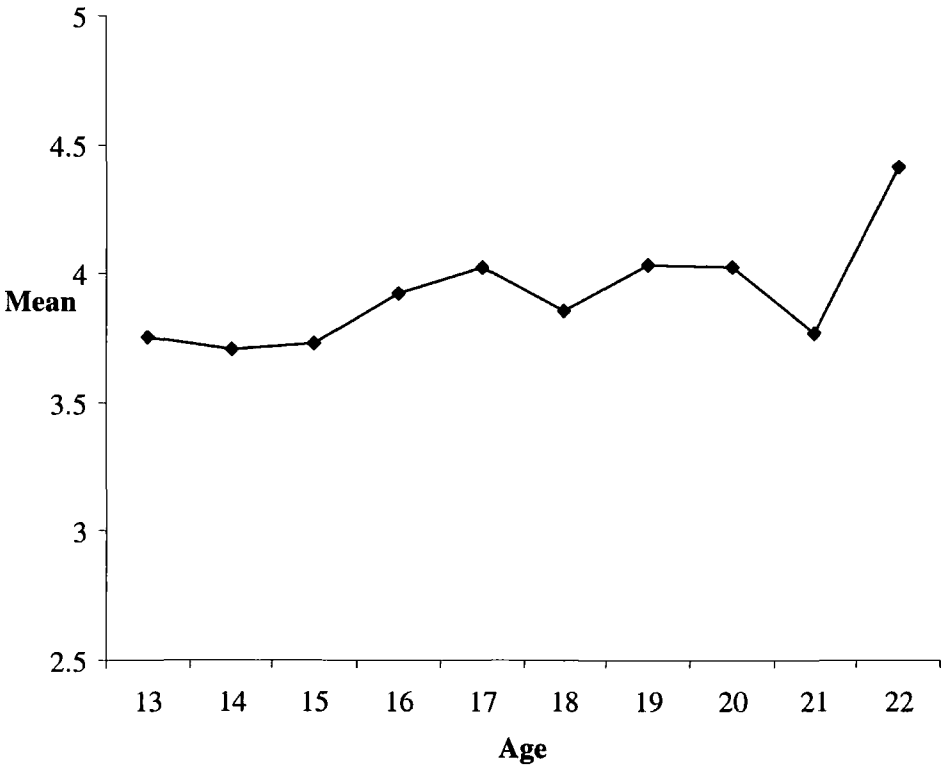


Figure 11 Age and learning situation level

After investigating how NAHK students' motivation relates to age at different motivation dimensions (language level, learner level and learning situation level), the hypothesis being tested so far has been supported.

In the following section, how different age groups of NAHK students react differently to different learning situations is the focus.

First, learning situation related to course-specific factors and its relations to NAHK students' age are shown in the following table. According to the following table, no general pattern can be generated as different age groups have different mean scores representing their motivation to learn English. NAHK students at the age of 21 have the weakest motivation of all. NAHK students at the age of 13, 18, 14 and 17 share similar motivation patterns. While NAHK students at the age of 15 and 19 to 21 have a very close motivation pattern. NAHK students who are at the age of 22 possess the strongest motivation. Looking at this motivation pattern in relation to the age of NAHK students, it is hard to attribute age as a factor affecting their motivation to learn English in the learning situation with course-specific factors. Therefore, in this particular sense, the hypothesis being tested cannot be supported.

Table 55 Age and NAHK students' course-specific motivational components

Motivation components-- course-specific motivational components	Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
	13	5	3.600	1.322
	14	14	3.662	1.834
	15	14	3.829	1.316
	16	18	3.919	1.738
	17	18	3.700	1.020
	18	16	3.645	1.912
	19	11	3.888	1.622
	20	9	3.907	1.653
	21	2	3.305	1.267
	22	1	4.333	0.000

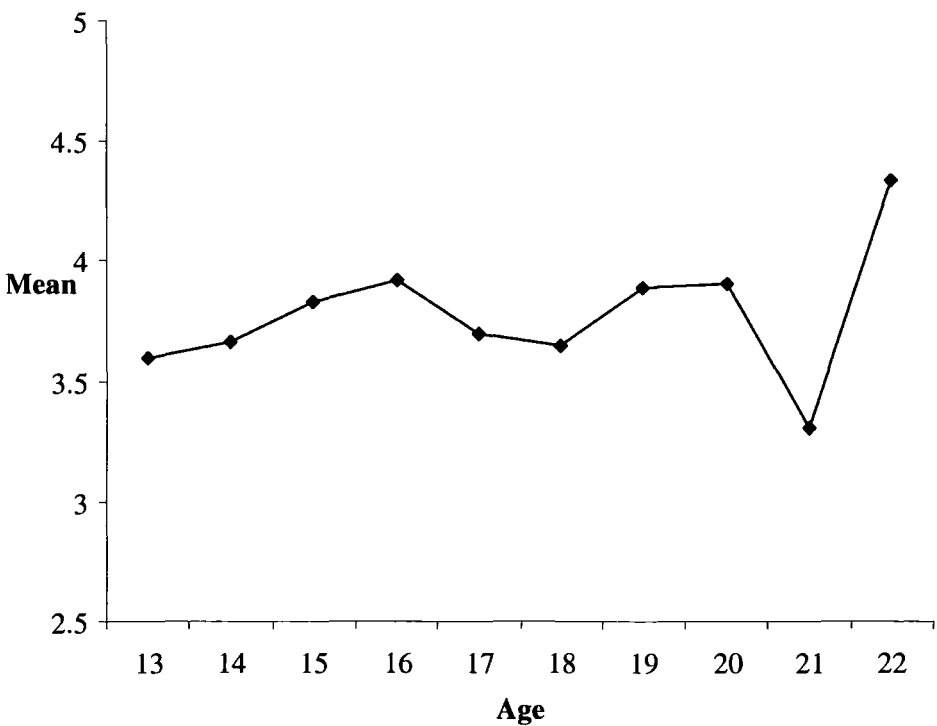


Figure 12 Age and course-specific motivation

Table 56 *Age and NAHK students' course-specific motivational components*

Motivation components-- course-specific motivational components	Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
	21	2	3.305	1.667
	13	5	3.600	1.322
	18	16	3.645	1.912
	14	14	3.662	1.834
	17	18	3.700	1.020
	15	14	3.829	1.316
	19	11	3.888	1.622
	20	9	3.907	1.653
	16	18	3.919	1.738
	22	1	4.333	0.000

As for the learning situation related to teacher-specific factors, an interesting picture emerged. NAHK students who are over the age of 16 and at the age of 13 have strong motivation if the learning situation is related to teachers. Their respective mean scores are all over 4.000. However, students who are at the age of 14 and 15 possess lower means which show teachers are less of their concern when learning English. Because of the uneven distribution of higher means across different age groups, the hypothesis being tested cannot be supported in this sense.

Table 57 Age and NAHK students' teacher-specific motivational components

Motivation components—teacher- specific motivational components	Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
	13	5	4.004	1.262
	14	14	3.722	1.052
	15	14	3.889	1.089
	16	18	4.213	1.585
	17	18	4.322	1.730
	18	16	4.197	1.837
	19	11	4.422	1.702
	20	9	4.478	1.540
	21	2	4.631	1.325
	22	1	4.547	0.000

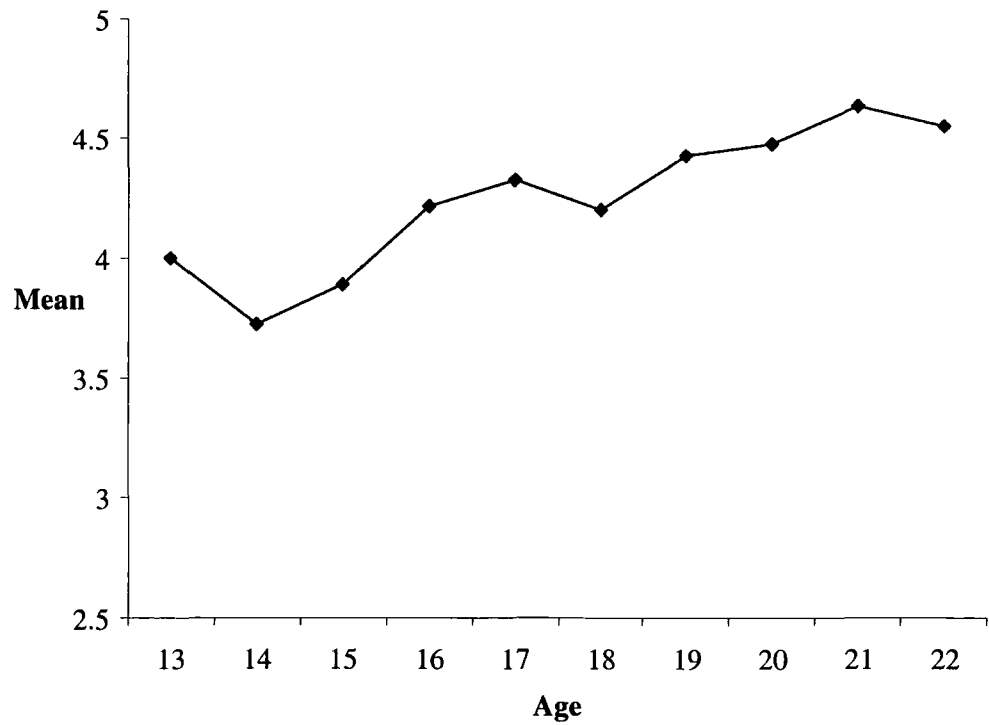


Figure 13 Age and teacher-specific motivation

Looking at the learning situation with peer related factors, NAHK students who are at the age of 13 have the mean score of 3.850 and the mean scores go up until the age of 17. Then, the mean scores drop from 4.232 to around 4.11 at the age of 18 and 19. However, the curve slumps from a high mean down to the lowest mean of 3.833 and jumps up back to the highest level of 4.667. With the pattern of this curve (see below), again, it is hard to support the hypothesis that NAHK students' motivation does increase as they grow older from the age of 13-18.

Table 58 Age and NAHK students' group-specific motivational components

Motivation components-- group-specific motivational components	Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
	13	5	3.850	1.426
	14	14	3.916	0.977
	15	14	3.952	1.182
	16	18	4.134	1.720
	17	18	4.231	1.759
	18	16	4.109	1.766
	19	11	4.113	1.458
	20	9	4.259	1.545
	21	2	3.833	1.042
	22	1	4.666	0.000

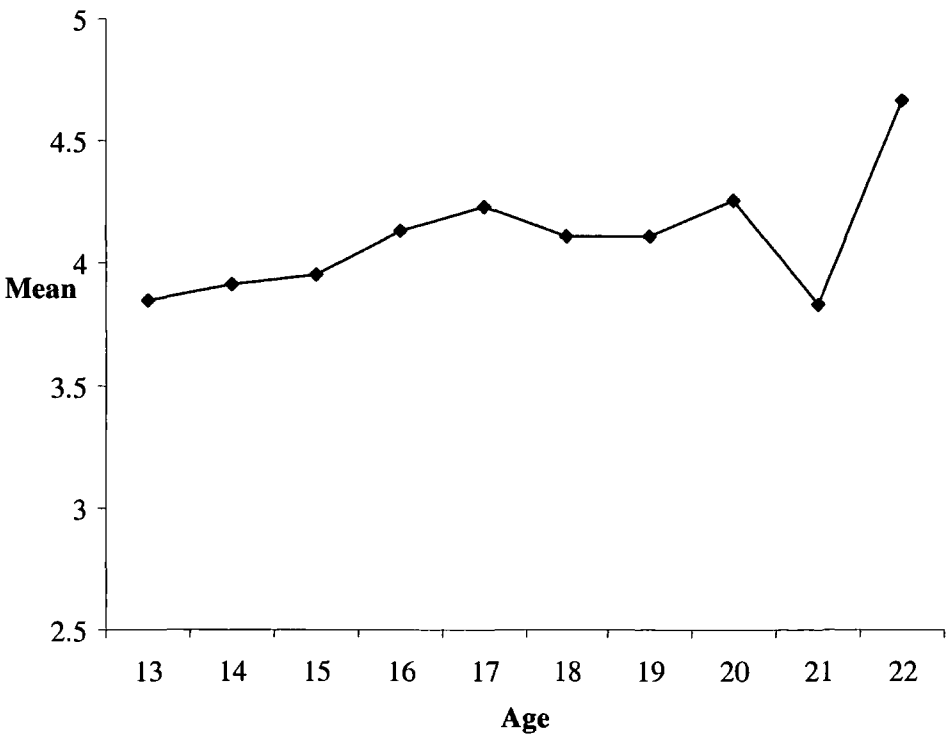


Figure 14 Age and group-specific motivation

When testing NAHK students' motivation in relations to parent-related factors, the following statistics show the changes of mean scores and there is no consistency in changes of mean scores due to age changes. Therefore, the hypothesis being tested cannot be supported.

Table 59 Age and NAHK students' parent-specific motivational components

Motivation components- parent-specific motivational components	Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
	13	5	3.522	1.629
	14	14	3.456	1.065
	15	14	3.182	1.975
	16	18	3.351	1.864
	17	18	3.780	1.693
	18	16	3.364	1.983
	19	11	3.681	1.770
	20	9	3.364	1.435
	21	2	3.277	1.235
	22	1	4.000	0.000

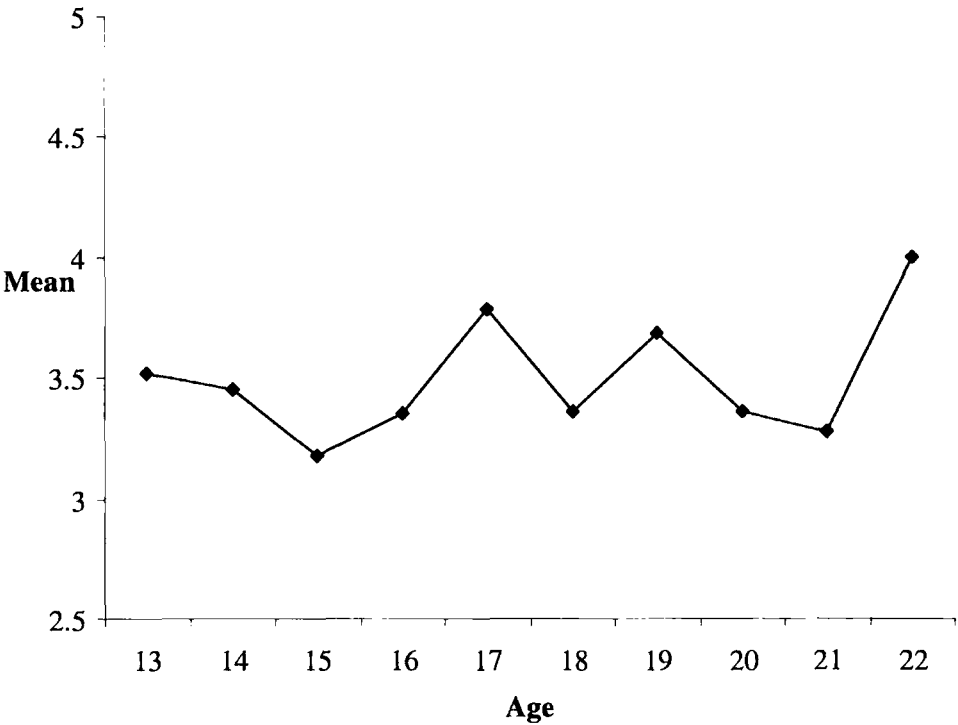


Figure 15 Age and parent-specific motivation

The next item to be examined is how age affects culture-related motivational factors. Glancing at the following table, no consistency of motivation

enhancement can be spotted based on the changes of age. The age groups which received the lowest mean scores are age 21 (M: 2.935) and age 15 (M: 3.348) while the age groups receive the highest mean scores are age 22 (M: 4.000) and age 17 (M: 3.965). This inconsistency of changes proves that the hypothesis being tested cannot be supported.

Table 60 Age and NAHK students' parent-specific motivational components

Motivation components- culture-specific motivational components	Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
	13	5	3.581	1.633
	14	14	3.423	1.090
	15	14	3.347	1.932
	16	18	3.512	1.834
	17	18	3.965	1.655
	18	16	3.451	1.972
	19	11	3.621	1.733
	20	9	3.650	1.512
	21	2	2.935	1.510
	22	1	4.000	0.000

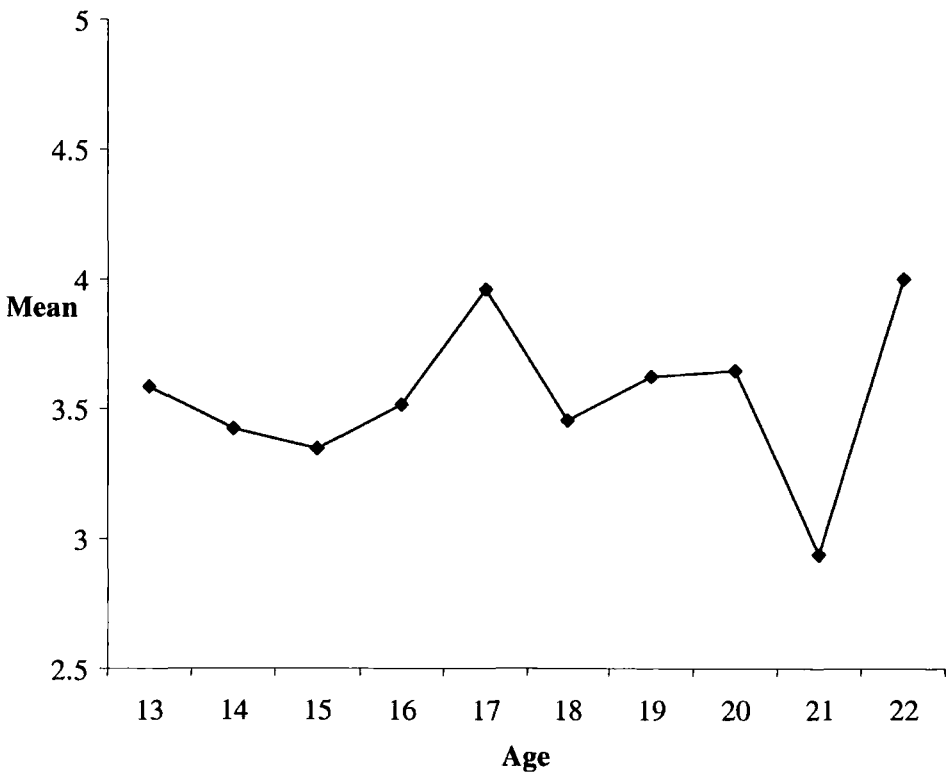


Figure 16 Age and culture-specific motivation

- **Interim summary**

The hypothesis being tested is to see whether NAHK students have stronger motivation to learn English as they grow older. The statistical results show the mean scores have a general tendency to go up as the age group of NAHK students grows older. On the surface, the hypothesis stands. Further examinations have been done to investigate if the hypothesis stands at different motivational level. It has been found that the hypothesis also stands after running a series of tests. However, the hypothesis does not stand anymore when age is tested against situation-specific motivation factors. The mean score each age group received are different and there is no general tendency of motivation enhancement due to age changes.

5.3.5 School form attending: An extrinsic motivator to learn English?

After investigating how age relates to NAHK students' motivation to learn English, another demographic characteristic to be looked at is school form attending. The hypothesis aims to test whether the higher school form NAHK students attended, the stronger motivation they have to learn English.

In many countries, age and school form attending are closely related and they should be analysed together. In fact, very often age and school form attending are considered as the same factor. However, in the case of NAHK students, it is a different issue. When NAHK students come to Hong Kong, they would be given a Chinese and English proficiency test to see whether there are any NAHK students need special language support. In many cases, NAHK students

would repeat at least one academic year to catch up with the English curriculum in Hong Kong. Because of the poor English standard, many cases need to attend a form which is three years lower than that form they used to attend in the Mainland. Take one case as an example, there were two sisters and one brother coming to Hong Kong the same year. The two sisters were 16 and 18 respectively and the brother was 15. Eventually, the two sisters studied in the same Form 5 class and the brother studied in Form 1. In other words, age and school form attending are not necessarily related in the case of NAHK students. Therefore, there is a need to separate age and school form attending as two independent issues.

A look at the following table shows different school forms NAHK students attend receive different mean scores which indicate their inclination to learn English. The table shows there is no sign of improvement of English learning motivation as the school form they attend advances.

However, the general means of the following table proves one fact. That is, NAHK students who are studying Form 5 are the group of students possessing the strongest motivation of all (M: 4.623, SD: 0.317). This result shows that the approaching of Hong Kong Certificate Examinations (HKCE) plays a significant role in affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

It has been known that education has a high status in Chinese culture. In Chen's (1989) study, Chinese children perceived education as their central task. Cheng (1999) found that in Hong Kong secondary schools, students in the senior forms

take competitive examinations to proceed to the next level, whereas those in the junior forms attend school regardless of their ability and motivation.

Education can also be used for excelling oneself in the social hierarchy (Ho, 1981; Mordkowitz & Ginsburg, 1987). As Morris (1983) stated, “The role of education as the primary source of social mobility and socio-economic status contributes to an instrumentalism which is manifested in the perceived importance and influence of public examinations and in a pedagogical style which functions primarily to provide pupils with the information necessary to pass the relevant examinations’ (p.81).

Up to this point of data analysis, the hypothesis cannot yet stand nor be seen as conclusive.

Table 61 *School form attending and overall motivation*

School form attending	n	Average mean	Std. deviation
Form 1	19	3.828	1.253
Form 2	13	4.028	1.244
Form 3	19	3.905	0.871
Form 4	32	3.828	1.211
Form 5	10	4.623	0.317
Form 6	16	4.248	1.422

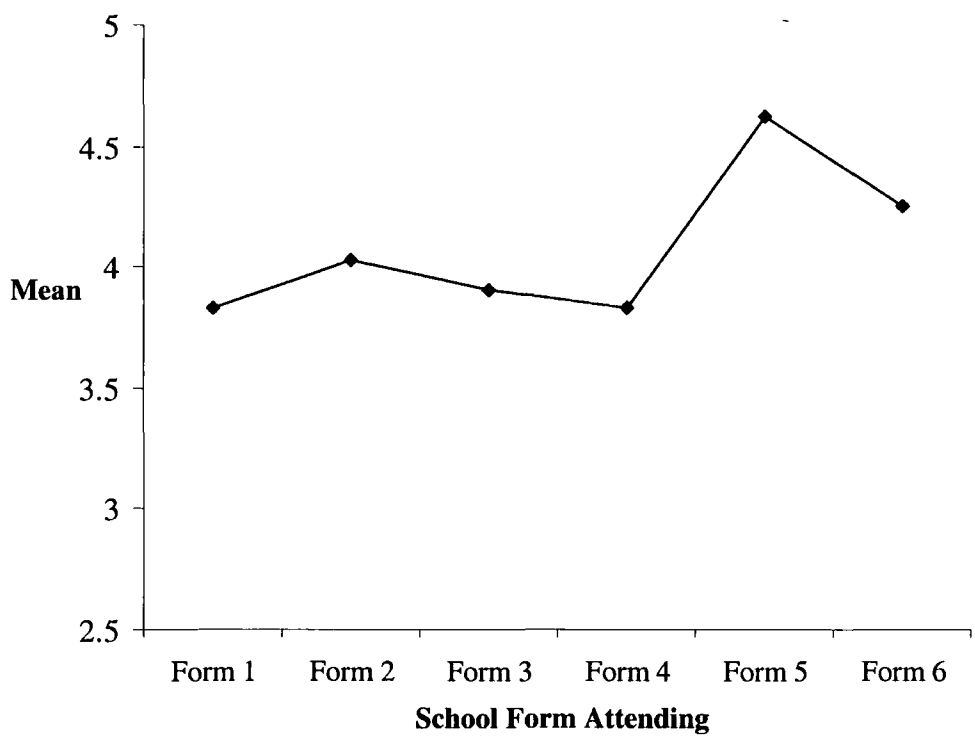


Figure 17 *School form attending and NAHK students' motivation*

To investigate further, this section will look at different motivation dimensions (language level, learner level and learning situation level) related to school form NAHK students attending.

According to the following table and curve generated based on the statistical results, no general relationship between the means and the school form attending can be generated. That is, the hypothesis being tested is on par with the previous section that the hypothesis does not stand.

Again, at the language level, NAHK students who are attending form 5 possess the strongest motivation to learn English which again indicates that HKCE is the core reason for their learning English and enhances their extrinsic motivation to learn English.

Table 62 School form attending and language level

Motivation dimension- Language level	School form attending	N	Mean	SD
	Form 1	19	3.824	0.940
	Form 2	13	3.923	1.451
	Form 3	19	3.824	0.937
	Form 4	32	3.739	0.885
	Form 5	10	4.716	0.550
	Form 6	16	4.125	1.456

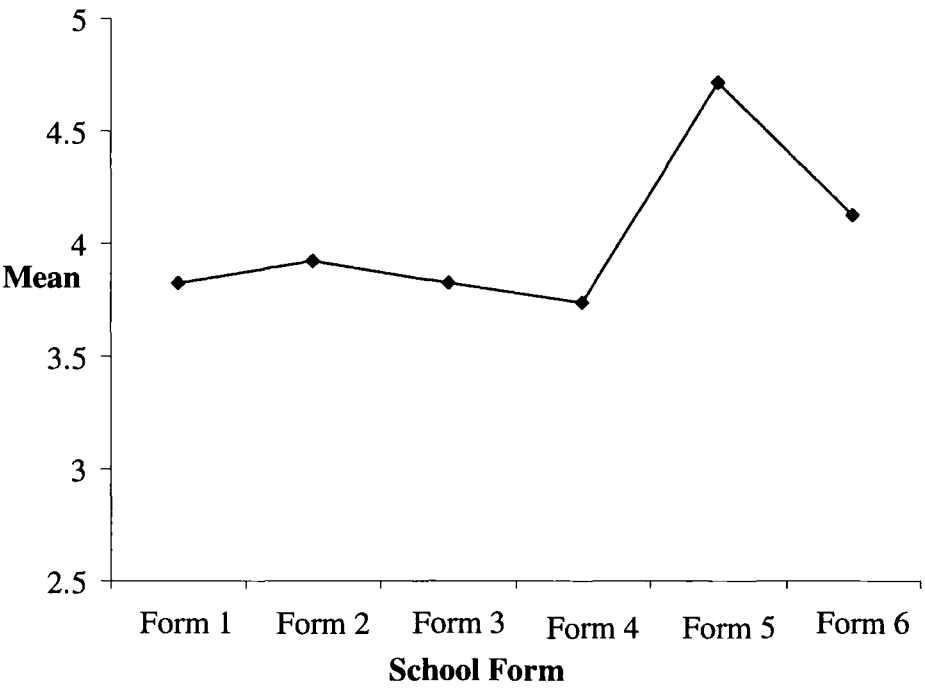


Figure 18 School form attending and NAHK students’ motivation at language level

Looking at the results at the learner level, similar results were generated. There is no consistent pattern of how school form attending affects NAHK students' motivation to learn English. However, the strongest mean score related to the school form attending by the NAHK students is again Form 5 (M: 4.719, SD: 0.550) which shows that NAHK students who are studying Form 5 have the strongest sense of achievement needs, satisfaction about what they are learning, expectancy of success and self-confidence in learning English well. However, this pattern does not have a tendency to go up or down based on the school forms NAHK students are attending. That is, the hypothesis being tested here, again, cannot be supported.

Table 63 School form attending and learner level

Motivation dimension- Learner level	School form attending	N	Mean	Std. deviation
	Form 1	19	3.911	0.750
	Form 2	13	4.228	1.659
	Form 3	19	4.026	0.964
	Form 4	32	3.996	0.734
	Form 5	10	4.719	0.418
	Form 6	16	4.578	1.473

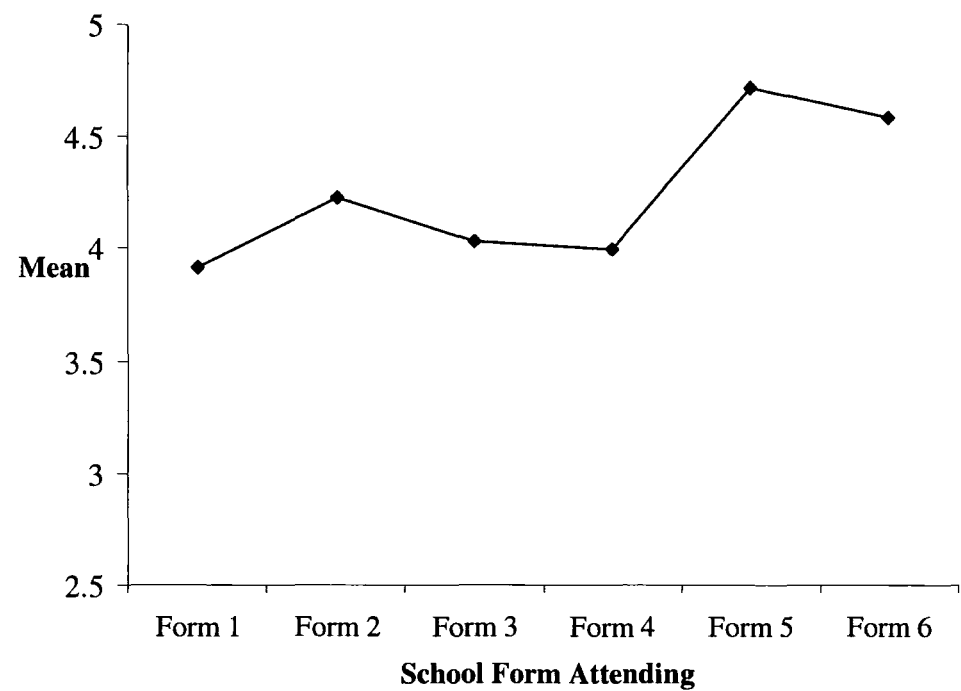


Figure 19 School form attending and NAHK students’ motivation at learner level

Even looking at the learning situation level, a level which always generates unexpected results, it still projects the same statistical result. That is, NAHK students who are attending form 5 have the strongest motivation to learn at the learning situation level while other school forms attending receive different means which do not support the hypothesis being tested.

Table 64 *Motivation dimension: Learning situation level*

School form attending	n	Mean	Std. deviation
Form 1	19	3.750	0.860
Form 2	13	3.934	1.625
Form 3	19	3.865	0.931
Form 4	32	3.749	1.672
Form 5	10	4.433	1.472
Form 6	16	4.042	1.391

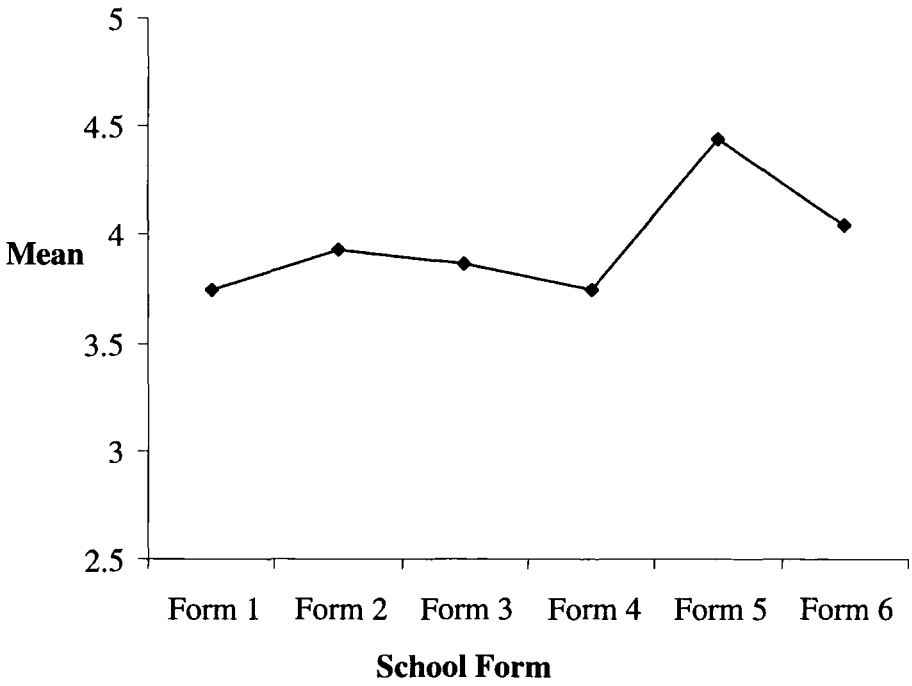


Figure 20 School form attending and NAHK students’ motivation at learning situation level

Under different situational related factors, the results generated according to the following table are on par with all the above statistical results. First of all, the hypothesis is not supported as there is no general relationship between the means and the school form attending. Secondly, form 5 is the school form under all situational specific factors that received the highest means. These results indicate that HKCE serves the main role affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English and that simultaneously enhances other factors' influence on English learning motivation.

Table 65 *School form attending and specific motivation components*

Motivation components	School form attending	n	Mean	SD
course-specific motivational components	Form 1	19	3.769	1.014
	Form 2	13	3.794	0.902
	Form 3	19	3.704	1.202
	Form 4	32	3.682	0.870
	Form 5	10	4.150	0.717
	Form 6	16	3.833	1.628
teacher-specific motivational components	Form 1	19	3.872	0.917
	Form 2	13	4.212	1.678
	Form 3	19	4.057	1.250
	Form 4	32	4.011	0.712
	Form 5	10	4.857	0.300
	Form 6	16	4.537	0.514
group-specific motivational components	Form 1	19	3.912	1.013
	Form 2	13	4.141	0.758
	Form 3	19	4.114	0.977
	Form 4	32	3.921	0.662
	Form 5	10	4.683	1.359
	Form 6	16	4.250	1.533
parent-specific motivational components	Form 1	19	3.394	0.928
	Form 2	13	3.521	0.893
	Form 3	19	3.502	1.010
	Form 4	32	3.326	0.788
	Form 5	10	3.961	0.854
	Form 6	16	3.479	1.535
culture-specific motivational components	Form 1	19	3.429	0.969
	Form 2	13	3.616	0.738
	Form 3	19	3.642	1.009
	Form 4	32	3.446	1.770

	Form 5	10	4.107	0.776
	Form 6	16	3.548	1.626

In students’ interview, some F5 NAHK students stated the importance of HKCEE in the process of English learning. Their responses are indeed representative.

LYL: I don’t know what else I can do to help myself to have a better life in Hong Kong. I guess the only thing I can do is to do well in my HKCEE. Then hopefully I can get a place in Form 6 then go to university. This year is a very important year for me, if not the most important. (LYL 44)

LYL: I try not to care about how people look at me. My number one task now is to pass my HKCEE. (LYL 52)

LLS: I don’t know what I can do if I fail my HKCEE. That’s why I have to put more effort on my studies. (LLS 50)

- **Interim summary**

This section has not supported the hypothesis tested. That is, it is not true to say the higher the school form NAHK students attend, the stronger the motivation.

However, the iron fact is that HKCE is the main core reason that motivates NAHK students to learn English in Hong Kong as Form 5 is the school form attending which received the highest means of all levels and situation-related scenarios. Instrumental values and needs of achievement, in the previous sections, were also found to be significant in NAHK students' English learning.

5.3.6 Financial support and spiritual support serve as motivator to learn English

The following section is to look at how financial support relates to NAHK students' motivation to learn English. The following table shows that NAHK students' parents income is one of the motivators to help them learn English regardless of how much their parents are earning. The mean score each group receive are all high.

A touching picture in fact has been shown here. The groups of students who indicate their parents strongly support their learning English are the group of students whose parents earn more than HK\$ 20,000 (US\$ 2600) a month (M: 4.677) and the group of students whose parents are earning the least HK\$5000 (US\$600) a month (M: 4.300). That is, no matter how much the NAHK students' parents are earning, their parents will financially support their children to learn English.

Table 66 *Parents’ income and NAHK students’ motivation*

Parents’ income	n	Average mean	SD
Below 5000	11	4.299	0.735
5001 to 10000	76	3.932	0.720
10001 to 15000	15	4.032	1.222
15001 to 20000	6	4.117	0.778
More than 20000	1	4.676	0.000

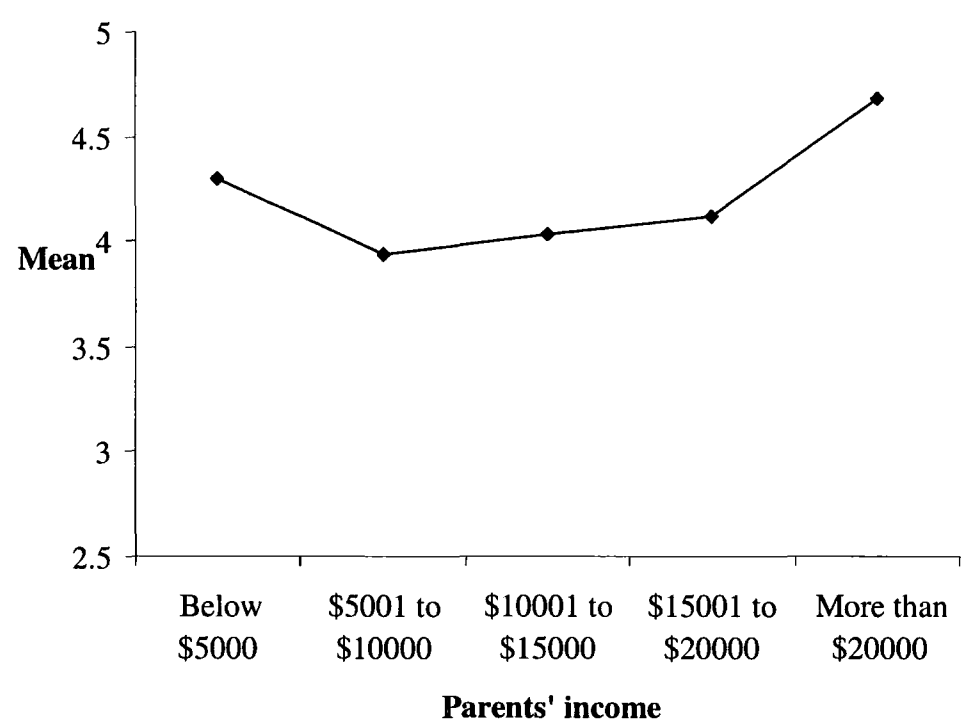


Figure 21 *Parents’ income and NAHK students’ motivation*

To understand how NAHK students are encouraged by their parents to learn English, a further look at the questionnaire can provide an answer. The following table shows that NAHK students agree with the statement “*My parents always encourage me to improve my English*” which receives a high

mean score of 4.230. Even the NAHK students do not fully agree with the statement “*My parents use different means to motivate me to learn English*”, that does not prove that NAHK students parents do not motivate their children to learn English. It only proves that NAHK students’ parents do not know how to use different means to motivate their children to learn English only.

Table 67 *NAHK students’ parent specific motivational components by rank*

Rank	Parent-specific motivational components	Item	Questionnaire question	Mean	SD
1	Affective encouragement	21	My parents always encourage me to improve my English.	4.230	1.012
4	Affective encouragement	5	Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong.	3.798	0.901
5	Affective encouragement	13	My parents use different means to motivate me learn English.	3.303	1.150

Some respondents explained the situation. They believe it was because of their parents’ education background that stops them from being able to motivate their own children to learn English.

LLY: My parents are from traditional Chinese families. They were brought up in a conservative family where people are not used to

show their feelings easily. They don't cry in front of people. They don't show affection to their children. They did not receive much education so they don't know how the westerners raise kids. My parents would only tell me and my brother what to do and what not to do. They have no western influence and their own parents did the same to them. My dad always says "my father never taught me anything, but I am fine. I did not become a gangster or a thief or do anything bad to the society." That's why my parents would only keep say the same thing over and over again like, "try your best" "don't be lazy" "work harder" "don't disappoint me". I don't have parents who will set up any study scheme to lure us to work better in order to get those prizes. (LLY 97)

- **Interim summary**

This section shows that NAHK students' parents serve the main role in motivating their children to learn English. Regardless of how much the NAHK students' parents earn, they fully support their children to learn English. Even their parents do not know how to use different means to motivate their children to learn English, NAHK students understand clearly how much their parents want them to learn English. Therefore, the results found in the section support the hypothesis being tested that NAHK students will have a stronger motivation to learn English if their parents are able to provide sufficient support, spiritually and financially.

5.3.7 Parents with higher education can motivate children

To investigate whether parents’ education level is a factor affecting NAHK students’ motivation to learn English, the following table shows us the answer.

Look at the following table, it is self-explanatory that NAHK students’ parents education level is indeed a factor affecting their motivation to learn English. The higher education NAHK students’ parents receive, the stronger motivation to learn English is. The table shows NAHK students’ whose parents have university education, their students’ believe their parents’ education in fact helps them learn English. While NAHK students’ parents who received secondary education only, their children’s motivation to learn English is weaker than those whose parents’ received university education. As for NAHK students’ parents who only received primary education, their children’s motivation is weaker than those whose parents received university and secondary school education. Not surprisingly, NAHK student’s motivation to learn English is the weakest if their parents received no formal education.

A look at table 68, the statistical results also support and echo the general results found in Table 69. Regardless of the motivation dimension, the motivation component or motivation sub-component, NAHK students will have stronger motivation to learn English if their parents have higher education. The same logic applies, NAHK students will have weaker motivation to learn English if their parents have low education level.

These results show that parents’ education background is a key motivator to help NAHK students to learn English. That is, the hypothesis being tested here stand—NAHK students’ with parents of higher educational level tend to have stronger motivation to learn English.

Table 68 *Parent’ education level and NAHK students’ motivation*

Parents’ education level	n	Average mean	Std. deviation
University	3	4.488	1.645
Secondary	63	4.241	1.630
Primary	15	3.565	1.625
No formal education	5	3.214	1.111
Don't know	23	3.731	1.556

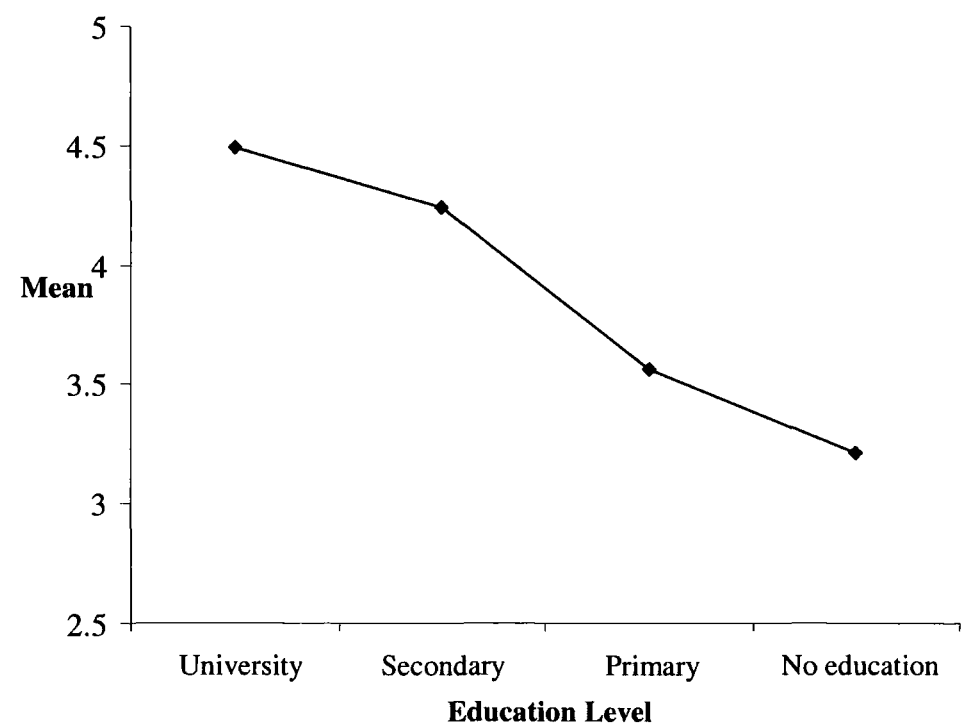


Figure 22 *Parents’ education background and NAHK students’ motivation*

Table 69 *Different motivation dimension and parents' education level*

Motivation dimension	Parents' education level	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
Language level	University	3	4.611	1.109
	Secondary	63	4.209	1.768
	Primary	15	3.644	1.828
	No formal education	5	3.233	1.436
	Don't know	23	3.449	1.678
Learner level	University	3	4.555	1.168
	Secondary	63	4.406	1.710
	Primary	15	3.707	1.710
	No formal education	5	3.294	1.245
	Don't know	23	3.946	1.600
Learning situation level	University	3	4.301	1.321
	Secondary	63	4.108	1.639
	Primary	15	3.345	1.609
	No formal education	5	3.116	1.074
	Don't know	23	3.798	1.640

Table 70 *Different specific motivation components and parents' education level*

Motivation components	Parents' education level	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
course-specific motivational components	University	3	4.055	1.234
	Secondary	63	3.987	1.822
	Primary	15	3.277	1.744
	No formal education	5	2.988	1.389
	Don't know	23	3.673	1.789
teacher-specific motivational components	University	3	4.952	1.160
	Secondary	63	4.385	1.739
	Primary	15	3.582	1.689
	No formal education	5	3.295	1.420
	Don't know	23	4.069	1.559
group-specific motivational components	University	3	4.750	0.794
	Secondary	63	4.308	1.713
	Primary	15	3.511	1.532
	No formal education	5	3.500	0.892
	Don't know	23	3.949	1.670
parent-specific motivational components	University	3	3.296	0.672
	Secondary	63	3.685	1.734
	Primary	15	2.955	1.758
	No formal education	5	2.555	0.946
	Don't know	23	3.451	1.945
culture-specific motivational components	University	3	3.697	1.008
	Secondary	63	3.798	1.743
	Primary	15	2.981	1.640
	No formal education	5	2.703	0.887
	Don't know	23	3.518	1.902

- **Interim summary**

This section has shown that parents' education background is a key factor affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English. The above statistical results showed that NAHK students with parents of a higher education level will have a stronger motivation to learn English. In this study, parents with a low education level affect their children's motivation to learn English. That is, if NAHK students' parents have higher level of education, their children will be more motivated to learn English in Hong.

Chapter 6

Discussions

The framework of this chapter is to discuss and draw implications one by one based on the hypotheses set for this study. The following table summarises the hypotheses set for each research question.

Table 71 *Research questions and hypotheses*

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>What are the most important factors that determine the NAHK's motivation to learn English?</i> 	
Hypotheses	
1	Among all motivational factors influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English, cultural adjustment serves the main significant factor.
2	Parents play a significant role in influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English.
3	Teachers serve an important role in motivating NAHK students to learn English.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>How does the NAHK students' background affect their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong?</i> 	
Hypotheses	
4	Gender factor -- Female NAHK students may have stronger motivation to learn English.
5	Length of stay -- The longer the NAHK students stay in Hong Kong, the stronger the motivation to learn English.
6	Age factor -- The older the NAHK students the stronger the motivation to learn

	English.
7	School form attending -- Senior years' NAHK students have motivation to learn English.
8	Geographical factor -- NAHK students who were born in Quangdong tend to have stronger motivation to learn English.
9	Financial and spiritual support from parents-- NAHK students will have a stronger motivation to learn English if their parents are able to provide sufficient support, spiritually or financially.
10	Parents' education factor -- NAHK students with parents of higher educational level tend to have stronger motivation to learn English.

According to the results found in previous sections, NAHK students were in general found to have a positive motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. There are, however, several aspects which need further attention. Analyses were conducted to see how NAHK students react to English learning in Hong Kong under the hypotheses set for this study.

This study also aims to explore NAHK students' motivation to learn English and its relations to their demographic background. Age, gender, cultural, and socioeconomic differences have been shown to have a close relationship with learners' motivation. Previous research like Dowson & McInerney (1998) found that differences in each of the variables of age, gender, cultural background, and socioeconomic status are strongly related to differences in relations between students' academic motivation, cognition, and achievement. This finding suggests that studies of motivational and cognitive differences should take these variables into account. The present study, therefore, also follow suit.

Research Question 1:

What are the most important factors that determine the NAHK's motivation to learn English?

Hypothesis 1:

Among all motivational factors influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English, cultural adjustment serves the main significant factor.

In this study, culture was added onto Dornyei's (2001) framework to test against NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. Results in the previous chapter showed that the culture serves as one of the main factors affecting NAHK students' learning motivation though not the most significant.

According to the results, culture specific motivational components are placed as the third most influential motivational components that affect NAHK students' motivation to learn English after teacher and peers on learning situation level. The cultural factor affecting NAHK students motivation to learn English is multi-faceted. As Brooks (1997) described, China's cultural system is based not on the strength of the individual, but on the pattern of relationships maintained by all people.

To look at cultural-specific motivation, there are four culture-specific motivational component items that are shown to be particularly important in contributing to the influence of cultural-specific motivation components. They are need for achievement, goal-orientation, teacher-related factor and instrumental motivational subsystem. All these factors have their influence on NAHK students' motivation to learn English in the context of Hong Kong culture.

Students repeatedly emphasised that learning English is an instrument for better social integration in Hong Kong. They believed learning English can help them get into university, find a good job and have better career prospect, so that they can settle in Hong Kong easier. And that teacher is also a facilitator in helping NAHK students to adjust well to the Hong Kong learning environment and NAHK students also have confidence in the teachers of Hong Kong that they can help them excel their English language proficiency.

These results under this hypothesis is interestingly linked with other hypotheses to be tested in this study. The three hypotheses linked with hypothesis 1 are Hypotheses 5, 7 & 8. The results of these hypotheses are all culturally related.

H5 Length of stay -- The longer the NAHK students stay in Hong Kong, the stronger the motivation to learn English.

H7 School form attending -- Senior years' NAHK students have motivation to learn English.

H8 Geographical factor -- NAAK students who were born in Guangdong tend to have stronger motivation to learn English.

The following section is going to explain the major findings found under Hypothesis 1 in conjunction with other related hypotheses.

● **English learning—A social integration tool**

Under Hypothesis 1, results showed that learning English is a tool to help NAAK students better settle down in Hong Kong socially. This reflects findings of Zhong (1996). The results found under Hypothesis 1 can be supported by the findings of Hypothesis 5—The longer the NAAK students stay in Hong Kong, the stronger the motivation to learn English and Hypothesis 8—NAAK students who were born in Guangdong Province tend to have stronger motivation to learn English.

Under Hypothesis 5, results found that NAAK students who arrived in 2004 (NAAK students' first year in Hong Kong) possess the strongest learning motivation. Language is always the first few cultural elements one has to encounter and it is undoubtedly the key to social integration, therefore, learning English is most needed when NAAK students first arrived in Hong Kong. Further research could be done annually and repeatedly to investigate whether the first year NAAK students arrive in Hong Kong is the year they possess strongest motivation to learn English. If this is the case, educators should seize

the chance to facilitate positive learning for NAHK students to help them acquire better language during the first year of stay in Hong Kong.

Similar conclusion had been drawn under Hypothesis 8 which is related to NAHK students' place of birth. It is evident that NAHK students who were born in Guangdong have a slightly stronger motivation to learn English in Hong Kong than those who were born outside Guangdong both generally and at different motivation dimensions. However, NAHK students who were born outside Guangdong were found to have stronger motivation when the learning situation is related to the course and culture. Also, NAHK students who are not born in Guangdong were found to have stronger motivation because they have better confidence in English learning and they have better satisfaction in the course Hong Kong schools offer them.

NAHK students who were born outside Guangdong have stronger motivation to learn English because English has not yet been set as a compulsory subject in many provinces outside Guangdong while English being a compulsory subject has long been implemented in Guangdong province. NAHK students who are from Guangdong certainly can adjust better in Hong Kong and English learning is not unfamiliar for them. While NAHK students who were born outside Guangdong would have a stronger motivation to learn English because English both as a language and an academic subject is part of Hong Kong culture which they have no choice but to adapt if they wish to better settle down in Hong Kong. With a determined and positive attitude of English learning in Hong

Kong, NAHK students can also easily gain better confidence in English and have better satisfaction in the Hong Kong schools offer.

Social integration has proved to be one of the reasons of NAHK students' learning English in Hong Kong. Such research can be duplicated and administered when English has become a compulsory subject in all Mainland Chinese provinces in order to find out whether the conclusions found in this study are conclusive.

- **English learning: an instrument to better study and career prospect**

Under Hypothesis 1, results also found that NAHK students believe learning English can help them get into university, find a good job and have better career prospect which supports findings by Peng (1993) and Bond (1991). This study also found similar results under Hypothesis 7 which reflected that NAHK students who are studying in Form 5 have the strongest motivation to learn English in Hong Kong as Form 5 is the year they have to take a public examination which decides if they can get into matriculation or university, although there is no inclination that NAHK students possess stronger motivation as they study in higher forms. The result suggest that the approaching Hong Kong Certificate Examinations (HKCE) play a significant role in affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

Both Hypothesis 1 and 7 found similar results that NAHK students have an instrumental orientation to learn English.

- **Teacher as an agent to help NAHK students better integrate in schools**

Results also showed that the teacher is a facilitator in helping NAHK students to adjust well to the Hong Kong learning environment and NAHK students also have confidence that English teachers in Hong Kong can help them excel in their English language proficiency. Similar results were also found in Hong and Lee (1999) that teachers have a significant role in student achievement.

In Wang's (1993) work, he found that cultural factors like language shock, culture differences, culture background knowledge, motivation, and ego permeability, create psychological distance for the Chinese ESL learners. The role of teacher is therefore indispensable. Chinese ESL learners need encouragement from their teachers and peers, teachers need to arouse curiosity about English language culture and hold English activities to challenge ESL learners, such as speech contests and spelling bees. Teachers should also encourage projects, encourage excellence, and be supportive in correcting errors.

This study and previous studies have confirmed the crucial role teachers in Hong Kong play in enhancing NAHK students' motivation to learn English.

- **Peer acceptance as key for social integration**

Peer influence was found to affect NAHK students' motivation to learn English. Though peer influence is not as significant as teacher or other components statistically, NAHK students revealed how they treasure social acceptance by their peers. Previous research also confirmed the importance of peers in one's learning (Ting, 1999; Moss and St-Laurent, 2001). Peer group recognition was considered to be an important factor that helps students adjust to the new environment better as peer recognition defined as a behaviour that creates social bonding. Through this connection, students cultivate adequate cultural values in order to establish their social identity and roles, learn social skills and knowledge in order to function with others adhesively. A personal image will then be able to be established. Social systems link individual and social structure and environment, social network links the individual and community. These two linkages connect individuals and create social integration.

Also since it is more likely for NAHK students to seek help within their personal network rather than from other sources, teachers can initiate more opportunities for students to interact among each other. Social bonding helps NAHK students to adjust to the new learning and social environment. To successfully help NAHK students to have positive social acceptance among their peers, teachers can facilitate peer tutoring in class. Peer tutoring is highly recommended for teaching a combined class of NAHK and local Hong Kong students as it has been proved its effectiveness in various studies (Carson and

Nelson,1996; Chun and Winter, 1999). According to Lai (1993), organised peer learning can work well in Hong Kong schools and Hong Kong secondary school students would in fact prefer a more collaborative learning environment which they consider would promote the deeper, more achievement-oriented approach to learning that they would prefer (Biggs, 1995)

Hypothesis 2--Parents play a significant role in influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English.

The next hypothesis set in this study to be tested is whether parents play a significant role in influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English as Chinese are known to have a close attachment with their family (Bond, 1991, p.36). Together with this hypothesis, two other hypotheses related to parental influence on NAHK students' English learning motivation will also be discussed in this section. They are:

Hypothesis 9:

Financial and spiritual support from parents-- NAHK students will have a stronger motivation to learn English if their parents are able to provide sufficient support, spiritually or financially.

Hypothesis 10:

Parents' education factor -- NAHK students with parents of higher educational level tend to have stronger motivation to learn English.

The reason for combining the two hypotheses is the relatedness of the three hypotheses. Hypothesis 9 and 10 can in fact be used as supporting factors to further look into the real picture of Hypothesis 2 and confirm the reliability of findings. In this section, discussion will first focus on Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 9 and 10 will be used to supplement the arguments of Hypothesis 2 where necessary.

In the past, Chinese parents were found to have significant influence on their children's academic studies (Yang, 1986; Chiu, 1987; Ghuman and Wong, 1989). According to the results found in this study, parents were found statistically to have the least influence on NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong. This result can be attributed to the poor education level of the NAHK students' parents. A closer look at the other motivational components demonstrated that Chinese parents indeed care about their children's studies. Despite their low income, the Chinese parents financially support their children whenever they can. Chinese parents' affective encouragement is also proved to be the most important motivator to support their children's learning in Hong Kong. Though results also found that the Chinese parents do not know how to use different means to motivate their children learn English.

The following, discussion will be based on previous research and will see how the results found might shed light on future research. Suggestions will also be provided in the hope that NAHK students can have a more positive yet less threatening environment to learn English in Hong Kong.

- **Education background: Parents with higher education can motivate children**

In the past, researchers like Clark found that “effective family” is the key leading to students’ academic achievements. He termed an ‘effective family’ as one with several characteristics: “family income, education and ethnic background” (cited in Wlodkoswki & Jayne, 1990: 38).

In the context of NAHK students, his claims seem to fall short. The low mean score of NAHK students’ parent education background indicates an aspect of the NAHK students’ learning situation—NAHK students cannot turn to their parents for help in terms of academic enquiries and many NAHK students also found that their parents could not assist their school work, NAHK students found that their parents’ affective encouragement and financial support are more important than their parents’ being able to assist their school work. It suggest that the education level of the parents is not the only factor affecting children’s academic achievement.

However, one strong finding is that parental academic background can certainly serve as a facilitator in co-educating with school to help their children excel academically. According to the statistical results found under Hypothesis 9, NAHK students’ parents education level is indeed a factor affecting their motivation to learn English. The higher education NAHK students’ parents receive, the stronger motivation to learn English is.

An area that can be further investigated in the context of NAHK students is to compare how parents' education background affects NAHK students' academic attainment, especially in English. Many researchers in the past have come to the same conclusion—parental involvement has a significant positive impact on student language achievement and there is a positive connection between parental involvement of families and improved students' achievement (Eccles & Harold, 1993; Henderson et al, 1994; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Ma, 1999; Shumow & Miller, 2001). However, studies have not been done specially looking into the context of NAHK students. Also, this study only confirmed parental educational level can act as a facilitator to enhance students' motivation to learn English; this study is not able to show whether parental education level can help NAHK students' to excel in their English academic attainment.

- **Financial support: Helpful or not?**

Research has found that parents of NAHK students might feel inadequate to become involved in their children's education for various reason (Moll, 1995). They may be underemployed or they may be under financial stress. Their lack of proficiency in English also puts them at a disadvantage to involve themselves in their children's education. However, the results found in this study has shown that parents of NAHK students can in fact motivate their children to learn English. Poor parental education background does not automatically mean NAHK students' parents play a non-significant role in their children's education. With their parents' low education background, NAHK students

emphasised the importance of their parents' financial support for their learning English.

In the west, a report (Mitchell, Collom & Gaskill, 2000) on students' achievement remarked that students who come from families with lower incomes have achievement rates which are commensurate with those from the wealthiest families. However, a Hong Kong charity organisation conducted a research on the effect a family can bring to the development of an adolescent. It was found that NAHK children might suffer from certain family problems like lack of emotional support from parents and financial and accommodation problems after they come to Hong Kong (HKFWSIFSNAASSWS, 2000). It indicated that family influence can greatly influence NAHK students' adjusting to the life in Hong Kong, with school life inevitably being affected. However, previous studies did not indicate whether the correlation between family income and students' English learning motivation is positive or negative. The present study has filled the gap.

Hypothesis 10 of this study suggested that NAHK students' parents income is in fact one of the motivators to help them learn English. . The groups of students who indicate their parents strongly support their learning English are the group of students whose parents earn more than HK\$ 20,000 (US\$ 2600) a month and the group of students whose parents are earning the least HK\$5000 (US\$600) a month. That is, no matter how much the NAHK students' parents are earning, their parents will financially support their children to learn English at all cost. This is not uncommon to Chinese family. The remaining area for further study

will be whether this applies to different ethnic groups. Results found in different ethnic groups can generate a comparative pictures across cultures.

- **Affective encouragement**

Affective encouragement is the key factor positively influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong, according to the results found under Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 10 also mirrored the findings.

Several researchers also found that when children are reared by adults who engage them in frequent, caring conversations, the children demonstrate better cognitive, linguistic, social, and emotional development (Brooks et al, 1997; Cotton & Wiklund, 2001; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Brown et al, 1997; Matinez, 1981; National Institutes of Health, 1997). Previous researches like Bloom, 1990; Douglas, 1967; Brophy, 1987; Gottfield et al., 1994 & Eccles et al., 1998; Langdon, 1997 cited in Nakagawa, 2000 also remarked that parents appear to be the primary influence on the child's motivation to learn. Schumann (1998) stressed the importance of affect in L2 learning situations and believed learners' external behaviour are the responses of environmental and social stimuli made.

Meanwhile, Chinese parents have also been found not to know how to use different ways to motivate their children to learn English. (This relates to hypothesis 2 in this study). Lau and his co-workers explained in their study that Chinese are associated with a dominating style of control with a lower level of

parental warmth (cited in Bond, 1991). Chinese parent, without a doubt, love their children, but they assert a dominant way of parenting and strongly emphasise studying well is the sole responsibility of their children. It will therefore be very interesting to see how Chinese students will respond to their academic expectations if they are to be raised by a perfectly westernised Chinese parents in the Hong Kong context. Further longitudinal study is needed.

Due to individual cultural differences, it is hard to make a final judgment on whether the western way of rearing children is better for Chinese children or vice versa. One significant fact is that if parents see themselves as co-educators of their children along with the school, the academic and linguistic growth of students can be significantly increased (Cummins, 1994). Tizard et al (1982) found that parents' involvement, regardless of their language proficiency, is a main factor improving students' language learning attitude. As Epstein et al (1997) discussed, children learn and grow through three overlapping spheres of influence: family, school and community and these three spheres must form partnerships to best meet the needs of the child.

In conclusion, NAHK students' parents should supervise children appropriately, noticing their teenagers' difficulty in school and in the new environment, and understanding their identity confusion and emotional needs. Parents should also encourage their children to participate in school and community activities to develop their own style and values, and to refine social skills. By showing more affective encouragement to their children, parents may reduce their NAHK children's psychological crisis and lessen their confusion.

Hypothesis 3:

Teachers serve an important role in motivating NAHK students to learn English.

Teachers were found to be the most significant factor in affecting NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong according to this study. Direct socialisation of motivation received the highest mean. Direct socialisation, according to Dornyei (2001), means "teacher can exert a direct systematic motivational influence by means of actively socialising the learners' motivation through modelling, task presentation and feedback."

Authority type and affiliative motive are placed second and third respectively after direct socialisation of motivation. Modelling, task presentation and feedback are the three sum-components under "direct socialisation of motivation" which is the most important element contributing to the teacher's influence.

Data also showed that NAHK students also prefer liberal teachers to teach them English. Interview responses showed that teachers can accelerate NAHK students' process of "social integration and normalisation". NAHK students believed that praises from teachers not only help them gain positive impression from teachers but also the local counterparts. Teachers' feedback is also a

significant powerful factor that can spark off NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

In the following section, discussions will be drawn based on the key findings summarised above.

- **Teachers as the most significant motivation factor**

Teachers being the most important factor in influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English is not surprising. According to Bond (1991, p.29), Chinese students usually treat teachers with respect, silence and fear. Chinese students see their teachers as their role model. Previous studies have also found that teachers have direct influence on learners' motivation (Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1993; Christophel & Gorham, 1995 & Wentzel, 1998). NAHK students also see the role of teachers as an accelerator to the process of "social integration and normalisation" (see chapter 5.2).

Under Hypothesis 1, results found that teachers are the agents to help NAHK students to adjust well to the Hong Kong learning environment because learning English in the Hong Kong context is one of the major concerns of their learning. Some made the claim that learning "Hong Kong English" is important for their integration and settling down in Hong Kong.

Based on the discussion so far, further research can be done to see the effectiveness of the English cultural tour. If the results are found positive,

implementation at school level can be take into consideration when reviewing the current English Language curriculum to cater for learning differences.

- **Modelling, task presentation and feedback facilitate English learning motivation**

Modelling, task presentation and feedback are considered important learning motivators by the NAHK students. Previous studies showed that teachers' teaching can bring direct influence on students' learning. This can be explained by the fact that NAHK students need a model or an example to follow when they are first exposed to English usage in Hong Kong context. Task presentation is therefore subsequently important because how learners can learn effectively greatly depend on how teaching is delivered and presented. If NAHK students are determined to learn English, feedback from teachers can help them understand and reflect on their strengths and weaknesses of learning. Learning English in Hong Kong context is also important because NAHK students were never exposed to English in use in Hong Kong.

According to the results found under Hypothesis 1, NAHK students have low self-confidence in mastering English in Hong Kong. Learning proper spelling of English names in Hong Kong is one of the difficult tasks they can think of, according to the interview responses. Teachers are therefore encouraged to show the differences between the spelling system in Hong Kong and that of Mainland China.

In terms of assessment, teachers should be aware of setting Hong Kong culture-related questions in any form of English tests or examinations. NAHK students who have only been in Hong Kong for a short time might not be able to answer Hong Kong culture-related questions in English. For example, Hong Kong street names, surnames and so on. No research has been done to examine the impact of these Hong Kong culture-related questions bring to NAHK students' English learning. However, it will be worthwhile to do further research to see whether Hong Kong cultural-related questions are not indeed suitable for NAHK students who have just arrived in Hong Kong for a short period of time. To cater for individual learning differences, teachers should avoid setting these questions if there are NAHK students who have just currently arrived in Hong Kong. Cultural free questions to be set can ease unnecessary worries.

- **Liberalism in English classes**

NAHK students in this study revealed that they prefer English teachers who are less controlling and more liberal. This result echoed previous studies. In Winter's (1990) findings, Chinese students were found to be more successful if they are taught by teachers who are reported as less controlling. Chan (1998) also believed that friendly learning environment and good teachers are the several factors that help their learning of a language (also see Dunn, 1990 & Wong, 1996).

However, d'Ailly's (2001, 2003) previous study has opposite conclusions. He found that perceived control is shown to have an all positive influence on

student's academic outcome. Other findings also suggested that learning and motivation among low-income are best promoted by some degree of teacher-provided structure, as opposed to a rather hands-off child-centered approach (Willson-Quayle and Winsler, 2000).

According to the above discussion, it is clear that stating that students achievement can be enhanced if teachers are to be less controlling is not yet conclusive. However, in the context and perspective of NAHK students, this study found NAHK students prefer English teachers to be less controlling and more liberal.

Research Question 2:

How does NAHK students' background affect their motivation to learn English in Hong Kong?

Seven hypotheses were set for examination under this research question. Five of the seven hypotheses have already been discussed in conjunction with the results of Hypothesis 1. The two remaining hypotheses to be discussed in this section are Hypothesis 4 and 6.

Hypothesis 4:

Gender factor -- Female NAHK students may have stronger motivation to learn English.

Hypothesis 6:

Age factor -- The older the NAHK students the stronger the motivation to learn English.

The two remaining hypotheses are related to NAHK's gender and age differences. In the following section, gender differences in relation to NAHK students' motivation will be discussed first then followed by age differences and its relations to English learning motivation.

Hypothesis 4:

Gender factor -- Female NAHK students may have stronger motivation to learn English.

In this study, NAHK girls were found to have stronger motivation to learn English in Hong Kong than boys at most levels. However, boys are found to have stronger motivation under parent-specific motivation component. The reason for this is that female NAHK students' parents have relatively lower education and income which contributes to the low mean score of parent-specific motivational component. Generally speaking, NAHK girls possess stronger motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

However, previous researches have not yet reached any conclusive results yet as results found are still contradicting each another. Overall, results revealed few gender differences. (see Hagborg, 1995; Meece & Jones, 1996; Bar-Tal et al,

1984; Kinicki et al, 1985; Chandler et al, 1983 and Li, 1990; Baer, 1998).

However, attempts have also been made to explain sex differences in motivation. There are two streams of results claiming there are gender differences in learning motivation. Some state females have stronger motivation (see Wong, 2000) and some state the opposite (see Boggiano & Barrett, 1992; Basow & Medcalf, 1988; Erkut, 1983; McHugh et al, 1982; Post 1981; Sweeny et al, 1982 and Wolleat et al, 1980; Brandon 1990; Graham and Rees, 1995; Niemivirta 1997, Wang & Staver 1997; Banya and Cheng, 1997).

Since previous studies do not have a conclusive remark on whether gender difference bring any impact to motivation, it is believed that gender difference is highly related to the context of study. Different learning contexts in individual studies can generate different results. Conclusive result related to whether girls have stronger motivation to learn English can hardly be reached unless an extensive literature can be reviewed, compared and contrasted. The results found in this study contribute one aspect of understanding of how gender difference affect a minor group of Chinese learners' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong.

Hypothesis 6:

Age factor -- The older the NAHK students the stronger the motivation to learn English.

The hypothesis being tested is to see whether NAHK students have stronger motivation to learn English as they grow older. The statistical results show the mean scores have a general tendency to go up as the age group of NAHK students grows older. On the surface, the hypothesis stands. Further examinations have been done to investigate if the hypothesis stands at different motivational level. It has been found that the hypothesis also stands after running a series of tests. However, the hypothesis does not stand anymore when age is tested against situation-specific motivation factors. The mean score each age group received are different and there is no general tendency of motivation enhancement due to age changes.

However, previous research like Weiner and Peter (1973), Parsons & Ruble (1977), Stipek (1981), Yussen & Berman (1981) Weisz et al. (1982) and Igoe & Sullivan (1991) found opposite conclusion suggesting that young children are more optimistic about their future performance than the older children.

However, these researches only focus on general performance not subject / language focused—English. Also, these studies examined different age groups while this study only focuses on NAHK students who are at the age between 13 and 22. The results found can only be applied in this particular context which helps educators understand what teaching strategies can be employed to teach different age groups of NAHK students.

Chapter 7

Limitations of study

This is an unprecedented study to investigate NAHK students' motivation to learn English. Findings of this study provide insights into NAHK students' motivation to learn English in Hong Kong and its relations to socio-cultural factors. However, limitations are bound to be found in this study.

First of all, the sample for this study was drawn from only a small number of schools in Hong Kong. To enhance the reliability of the study, more samples should be drawn from secondary schools across Hong Kong.

Secondly, the number of samples under respective demographic characteristic group such as place of birth and age was too small, making the findings difficult to be generalized. As Borg and Gall (1979:194-5) suggested that there should be no fewer than 100 cases for survey research and in each major subgroup, there should have twenty to fifty in each minor group. This problem can only be avoided if the sample size is to be enlarged to a minimum of 1000 NAHK students.

Thirdly, there were some missing values in the data, especially in the questionnaire. Some students missed one page of the four-sided questionnaire. Missing values were excluded from the analysis making the sample size for some of the comparisons smaller than others.

Chapter 8

Implications and Conclusions

Motivation is always a complex construct. What about the motivation to learn English of a group of neglected students—NAHK students? To investigate what factors affect NAHK students' motivation to learn English was the main objective of this study. It investigated how motivation relates to NAHK students' demographic characteristics which in fact determine their motivation to learn English.

This study adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods to discover NAHK students' opinions about their own motivation to learn English. A questionnaire was distributed. Interviews were done to reveal an inside story of what has been going on in NAHK students' English learning situations. Dornyei's motivational framework was used to examine NAHK students' motivation to learn English. This study added two additional components onto Dornyei's framework. They are parent-specific motivation and cultural component.

Statistically speaking, the present study found that teacher is the most significant factor influencing NAHK students' motivation to learn English. In that case, English teachers should be reminded of their important roles in affecting this group's social adjustment as well as English learning in Hong Kong. Teachers should aim to create an environment conducive to English learning; selecting

appropriate learning objectives; choosing relevant authentic teaching and learning materials; designing, structuring and grading learning objectives and providing constructive feedback to NAHK students in order to cater NAHK students' learning diversity in Hong Kong English classrooms.

In this study, culture was found the third most influential factor affecting the subjects' motivation to learn English though it has been believed that culture can be a determining factor affecting NAHK students' learning. Culture was found less important in affecting students' motivation to learn English while teachers and friends were found to be more determining. In other words, factors that are more tangible are more of imminent needs for NAHK students to settle down in Hong Kong as both teachers and peers both pose immediate effects on NAHK students' social adjustment and motivation to learn English. Culture is intangible and its effect comes slower than that of teachers and peers. That is, to help NAHK students adjust better in school setting, both teachers and peers should be reminded of their roles in helping this group of newcomers.

For teachers, they should introduce authentic materials which introduce the pragmatic use of English in Hong Kong context. Cultural lessons integrate with English learning can be an effective means to further help NAHK students to adjust better in the English learning environment in Hong Kong. Teachers may consider to guide NAHK students around Hong Kong and teach them the English names of those famous spots in Hong Kong which always appear in any form of English assessment e.g. HKCEE.

The suggestion is that the cultural tour be led by local Hong Kong students. Having a cultural tour led by local Hong Kong students can serve as a double-edge sword—acquiring the English used in Hong Kong and having deeper and better group interaction so that the two groups of students can socialise with each other and learn to appreciate people of other cultures.

Although parents are not statistically important in bringing impact to NAHK students' English learning, it has been shown that parents in fact play an indispensable role in supporting NAHK students' English learning. Although parents' influence was found to be the least significant in the present study, a further look at the motivational component showed another side of the coin—parents affective and financial support are always there for NAHK students to improve English—no matter whether they have high income or low income. The reason for the low mean score parent-specific motivation is the low education background the NAHK students' parents have. In other words, NAHK students' parents fully support their children to learn English even though they cannot help with their children's work in terms of English. NAHK students' parents are very hard-working and they support their children's studies where possible even they are not well-educated or not particularly good at expressing affect and love to their children, NAHK students work hard on their studies because they do not want to disappoint their parents. Meaning, parents can in fact have great impact on their English learning. Parents should be encouraged to communicate and share their feelings with their children more. Understanding parents' expectation may indirectly boost NAHK students' motivation to learn English. Schools should also develop deeper collaboration with parents like strengthening the role

of parent-teacher association and organise more activities for parents, students and the school to cultivate a sense of mutual trust. Through participating school activities, parents will be able to understand their children more and show more affective care to them.

In this study, learning English was found to be considered as an instrument for accelerating social integration and NAHK students also found learning English is a key to academic and career success. To better integrate with the target culture, NAHK students see the role of teachers very importantly because teachers can help them learn one of the most important languages in Hong Kong—English. By acquiring a good level of English, NAHK students believe that they would have a better life in the future. Therefore, NAHK students considered teachers' modelling, task presentation and feedback very crucial to their English learning. Individual consultation sessions to be provided for NAHK students to review their process of learning can help NAHK students create a good bond with teachers as well as having face-to-face feedback, encouragement to enhance NAHK students' learning.

Last but not the least, female NAHK students and those who are at older age, regardless of their gender, were also found to have stronger motivation to learn English. Though the results are not yet conclusive, this study serves as a foundation to conduct further research on the development of NAHK students' English learning in Hong Kong.

Many of the results found in this study were meaningful. It is hoped that implications drawn from this study can shed light on further studies on investigating how NAHK students' motivation to learn English is maintained and developed. Longitudinal studies can be done to trace how NAHK students' English attainment is affected by the factors listed in the modified version of Dorneyi's motivational framework and to what extent each of those motivational factor affect their learning attitude and behaviour.

Bibliography

Adler, P. S. (1975). The transitional experience: an alternative view of culture shock. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 15, 513-523.

Agarwal, R. & Misra, G. (1986). A factor analytic study of achievement goals and means: An Indian view. *International Journal of Psychology*, 21, 717-731.

Aifan, T. (1997). Who are Hongkongers? In *Hong Kong Financial News* (25 February, 2005)

Akande, A. (1999). Gender differences in approaches to learning: Across cultures. *Early Child Development and Care*, 151, p57-76.

Ames, C. (1984). Competitive, cooperative and individualistic goal structures: A cognitive motivational analysis. In Ames, R. & Ames, C. (Eds.) *Research in Motivation in Education*. Orlando, Florida: Academic Press, 1, 177-207.

Ames, C. (1992). Classroom, Goals, Structures and Student Motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84, 267—271.

Anderman, L. H. & Midgley, C. (1997). Motivation and schooling in the middle grades. *Review of Education research*, 64 (2) 287-309.

Angell, R. C. (1972). Social Integration. In D. L. Sills (Ed.) *International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, 7 (pp.381-386). New York: Macmillan and Free Press.

Appleton, S. (1970). Surveying the values of Chinese college students. *Asian Forum*, 2 (2), 75-88.

Appley, M. H. (1990). Motivation, equilibrium and stress. In Dienstbier, R.A.(Ed.) *Perspectives on Motivation*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Arunkumar, R. (1999). *Two different world: Causes and consequences of experiencing a cultural dissonance between home and school*. University of Michigan.

Atkinson, J. W. & Feather, N. T. (Eds.) (1966). *A Theory of Achievement Motivation*. New York: Robert E. Krieger.

Atkinson, J. W. & Raynor, J. O. (1974). *Motivation and Achievement*. Washington, DC: Winston & Sons.

Babliker, I. E., Cox, J. L. & Miller, P. M. C. (1980). The measurement of culture distance and its relationship to medical consultation, symptomatology and examination performance of overseas students at Edinburgh University. *Social Psychiatry*, 15, 109-116.

Baer, J. (1988). Gender differences in the effects of extrinsic motivation on creativity. *Journal of Creative Behaviour*, 32 (1), 18-37.

- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived Self-Efficacy in Cognitive Development and Functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28, 117—48.
- Banya, K. & Cheng, M. H. (1997). *Beliefs About Foreign Language Learning-- A Study of Beliefs of Teachers' and Students' Cross Cultural Settings*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (31st, Orlando, FL, March 11-15, 1997).
- Bar-Tal, D., Goldberg, M. & Knanni, A. (1984). Causes of success and failure and their dimensions as a function of SES and gender: A phenomenological analysis. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 54, 51-61.
- Basow, S. A. & Medcalf, K. L. (1988). Academic achievement and attributions among college students: Effects of gender and sex typing. *Sex Roles*, 19 (9/10), 555-567.
- Bennett, C. I. (2003). *Comprehensive Multicultural Education: Theory and Practice*. Needham Heights, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon.
- Berndt, T. (1990). Friends' influence on adolescents' academic achievement motivation: An experimental study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82 (4), p664-70.
- Biggs, J. (1995). Motivating learning. In Biggs, J. & Walkins, D. (Eds.) *Classroom learning: Educational psychology for the Asian teacher*. New York: Prentice Hall.

Blumenfeld, P. C. (1992). Classroom learning and motivation: Clarifying and expanding goal theory. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84 (3), 272-281.

Boggiano, A. K. & Barrett, M. (1992). Gender differences in depression in children as a function of motivational orientation. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 26 (1-2) , 11-17.

Bond, M. C., Leung, K. & Wan, K. C. (1982). How does cultural collectivism operate? The impact of task and maintenance contributions on reward distribution, *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 13 (2), 186-200.

Bond, M. H. (Ed.) (1986). *Beyond the Chinese Face: Insights from psychology*. Hong Kong: New York: Oxford University Press.

Bond, M. H. (Ed.) (1986). *The Psychology of the Chinese people*. Hong Kong: New York: Oxford University Press.

Bond, M. H. (Ed.) (1996). *The Handbook of Chinese Psychology*. Hong Kong: New York: Oxford University Press.

Borg, W. R. & Gall, M. D. (1979). *Educational Research: An introduction*. (3rd). London: Longman.

Bourne, P. G. (1975). *The Chinese student: acculturation and mental illness*.
Psychiatry, 38, 269-277.

Boyle, J. P. (1987). Sex differences in listening vocabulary. *Language Learning*,
37, 3-284.

Brandon, P. R. (1990). *Gender Differences in Educational Attainment among Asian Americans in the High- School-and-Beyond Senior-Cohort Third Follow-Up Survey*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Boston, MA, April 16-20, 1990).

Brandon, P. R. (1991). Gender differences in young Asian Americans' educational attainments. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 25 (1-2), 45-61.

Brislin, R. (1993). *Understanding Culture's Influence on Behaviour*. Orlando: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Brooks, A. A. R. (1997). *Learning Strategies as Learning Inhibitors for Chinese Speakers*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (31st, Orlando, FL, March 11-15, 1997).

Brooks, N., Bruno, E. & Burns, T. (1997). *Reinforcing students' motivation through parent interaction*. ERIC (ED411074).

Brophy, J. (1987). "Synthesis of Research on Strategies for Motivating Students To Learn." *Educational Leadership* (October 1987), 40-48.

- Brown, Z. A., Hammond, O. W. & Onikama, D. L. (1997). *Language use at home and school: A synthesis of research for Pacific educators*. Honolulu, HI: Pacific Resources for Education and Learning.
- Byram, M. (1989). *Cultural Studies in Foreign Language Education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters
- Carrasquillo, M. & Rodriguez, V. (1996). *Language minority students in the mainstream classroom*. Bristol, PA: Multilingual Matters.
- Carson, J. G. & Nelson, G. L. (1996). Chinese students' perceptions of ESL peer response group interaction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5 (1), 1-19.
- Chan, C. (1989). *A study of Chinese and American children's attitude towards schooling*. Unpublished manuscript. University of Michigan. (Eric Document Reproduction Service. No: 305165)
- Chan, H. T. F., Salili, F. & Biggs, J. B. (1991). *The relationship between casual attributions, learning strategies, and level of achievement: A Hong Kong Chinese study*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Hong Kong.
- Chan, K. H. (1998). The social integration of Hong Kong local born students and NAHK students from the Mainland China. In Chan, W. C. (Ed.) *The Psychological Adjustment of NAHK Students-Researches, Theories and Application*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Wan Chai Social Services Centre, p.107-123.

Chan, K. H. (2003). *Social Integration between NAHK Students and their Local Counterparts*. [online] <http://www.csw.ymcahk.org.hk/Report1.html> accessed on 26 March 2005

Chan, K. W. (1998). Factors facilitating language learning: HKBU students' perspectives and their implications. *HKBU Occasional Papers in Applied Language Studies*, 3, July, 1998, p.47-64.

Chandler, T. A., Shama, D. D. Wolf, F. M. & Planchard, S. K. (1981). Multi-attributational causality: A five national samples study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 12, 207-221.

Chang, H. B. (1972). *A study of some attitudes of Chinese students in the United States*. Dissertation. Austin: The University of Texas at Austin.

Chang, H. B. (1973). Attitudes of Chinese students in the United States. *Sociology and Social Research*, 58 (1), 66-77.

Chang, S. S. (1979). 'Children's literature and political socialisation'. In G.C. Chu and F. L. K. Hsu (Eds.) *Moving a Mountain: Cultural Change in China*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Chao, R. K. (1996). Chinese and European American mothers' beliefs about the role of parenting in children's school success. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 27 (4), 403-23.

Chau, P. C. (2003). *A new immigrant like me*. Ming Pao, 24 January, 2005, D6.

Chen, C., Greenberger, E., Lester, J., Dong, Q. & Guo, M. S. (1998). A Cross-Cultural Study of Family and Peer Correlates of Adolescent Misconduct. *Developmental Psychology*, 34 (4), p770-81.

Chen, X. (1992). Social reputation and peer relationships in Chinese and Canadian Children: A Cross-Cultural Study. *Child Development*, 63 (6), p1336-43.

Chen, X. M. (1998). *Sojourners and 'Foreigner': A Study on Chinese Students' Intercultural Interpersonal Relationships in the United States*. Changsha: Humana Jiao Yu Chu Ban She.

Cheng, S. T. (1999). Perception of classroom environment in Hong Kong: Differences between students in junior and senior forms. *Adolescence*, 34 (136), 793-98.

Chiu, L. H. (1987). Child rearing attitudes of Chinese, Chinese American, and Anglo-American mothers. *International Journal of Psychology*, 22, 409-419.

Choir, C. (2001). NAHK children's education. In Yuan, Y. M. & Christophel, D. M. & Gorham, J. (1995). A test-retest analysis of student motivation, teacher immediacy, and perceived sources of motivation and demotivation in college classes. *Communication Education*, 44 (4), p.292-306.

Christophel, D. M. (1990). The relationships among teacher immediacy behaviors, student motivation, and learning. *Communication Education*, 39 (4), p323-40.

Chun, C. C. & Winter, S. (1999). Classwide peer tutoring with or without reinforcement: Effects on academic responding, content coverage, achievement, intrinsic interest and reported project experiences. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, 19 (2), p191-205.

Cleary, L. M. (1996). "I think I know what my teachers want now": Gender and writing motivation. *English Journal*, 85 (1), 50-57.

Clement, R. & Noels, K. A. (1992). Towards a situated approach to ethnolinguistic identity: The effects of status on individuals and groups. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 11, 203-32.

Clement, R. (1980). Ethnicity, contact and communicative competence in a second language. In Giles, H; Robinson, W P & Smith, P M (Eds.) *Language: Social Psychological Perspectives*, 147—154.

Clement, R., Dornyei, Z. & Noel, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44, 417-418.

- Cobb, S. (1976). Social support as a moderator of life stress. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 38. 300-314.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (2nd Edition). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cotton, K. & Wikelund, K. R. (2001). *Parent involvement in education*.
<http://www.nwrel.org/scpd/sirs/3/cu6.html>
- Covington, M. V. (1992). *Making the Grade: A self-worth perspective on motivation and school reform*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cox, D. (1990). *Children and migration: A social worker's perspective*. In *Children and Migration: A New Challenge for World Wide Social Services*. International Social Services Hong Kong Branch. P.26.
- Crookall, D. & Oxford, R. (1988). Review Essay. *Language Learning*, 31 (1) 128—140.
- Crookes, G & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the Research Agenda. *Language Learning*, 41, 469-512.
- Cummins, J. (1994). Knowledge, power, and identity in teaching English as a second language. In Genesee, F. (Ed.) *Educating second language children: The whole child, the whole curriculum, the whole community*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

d'Ailly, H. & Hsiao, D. (2001). *A Cross-Cultural Study on Autonomy and Perceived Control in Learning*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association (110th, Chicago, IL, August 22-25, 2002).

d'Ailly, H. (2003). Children's autonomy and perceived control in learning: A model of motivation and achievement in Taiwan. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95 (1), 84-96.

David, K. H. (1976). *The use of social learning theory in preventing intercultural adjustment problems*. The University of Hawaii: Honolulu.

De Melendez, W. R. & Ostetag, V. (1997). *Teaching Young Children in Multicultural Classrooms: Issues, Concepts and Strategies*. Albany, New York: Delmar Publishers.

DeCharms, R. (1972). *Enhancing Motivation: Change in the Classroom*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour*. New York: Plenum Press.

Deng, Z. D. (1990). *Brain drain and Chinese overseas education movement-causes, implications and policy options*. Dissertation. Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania State University.

Dickinson, L. (1995). Autonomy and motivation: A literature review. *System*, 23, 165-74.

Din, J. & Lau, S. D. (2001). Differences between Hong Kong and Mainland China's schooling. In Yuen, Y. M. & Lau, S. S. (Ed.) *Educating New Arrivals in Hong Kong: A Learning Experience*. Hong Kong: The Hong Kong Institute of Hong Kong.

Dong, Q. (1996). Correlates of Social Status among Chinese Adolescents. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 27 (4), p476-93.

Dornyei, Z. & Schmidt, R. (2001). *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Dornyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 273—284.

Dornyei, Z. (1997). Psychological processes in cooperative language learning: Group dynamics and motivation. *Modern Language Journal*, 81 (4), p482-93.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning, *Language Teaching*, 117-135. Eccles, J. & Wigfield, A. (1995). In the Mind of the Actor: The structure of adolescents' achievement task values and expectancy-related beliefs. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21(3), 215-225.

Dowson, M. & McInerney, D. M. (1998). *Age, Gender, Cultural, and Socioeconomic Differences in Students' Academic Motivation, Cognition, and Achievement*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Diego, CA, April 13-17, 1998).

Dunkin, M. J. & Biddle, B. J. (1974). *The Study of Teaching*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Dunn, R. (1990). Cross-cultural differences in learning styles of elementary-age students from four ethnic backgrounds. *Journal of Multicultural Counselling and Development*, 18 (2), p68-93.

Durkheim, E. (1983). *Pragmatism and sociology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Eccles, J. S. & Harold, R. D. (1993). Parent-school involvement during the early adolescent years. *Teachers College Record* 94, 568-587.

Eccles, J. S. and Wigfield, A. (1995). In the mind of the actor: The structure of adolescents' achievement task values and expectancy-related beliefs. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21, 215-225.

Eisenstadt, S. N. (1955). *The absorption of immigrants*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press.

Entziner, H. (1990). *Children and migration: Challenges for social policies*.

International Symposium Proceedings.

Epstein, J. L., Coates, L., Salinas, K. C., Sanders, M. G., & Simon, B. S.

(1997). *School, family, and community partnership: Your handbook for action*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Erkut, S. (1983). Exploring sex differences in expectancy, attribution, and academic achievement. *Sex Roles*, 9 (2), 217-231.

Feng, J. H. (1991). *The adaptation of students from People's Republic of China in American culture* [online] available: <http://globalvgw13.global.epnet.com> (23 March 2005)

Fierro, D. (1997). Is there a difference in learning style among children. *Research Report*, 143.

Fingar, T. & Reed, L. A. (1981). *Survey Summary: Students and Scholars from the People's Republic of China in the United States*. Washington, DC: Committee on Scholarly Communication with the Republic of China and the National Association for Foreign Students Affairs.

Finnan, C. R. (1998). Occupational assimilation of refugees. *International Migration Review*, 15 (1) p.292-311.

Florsheim, P. (1997). Chinese adolescent immigrants: Factors related to psychosocial adjustment. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 26 (2),143-63.

Freud, S. (1926). Psycho-analysis. *S.E.*, 20, 263-270.

Frymier, A. B. (1993). The impact of teacher immediacy on students' motivation: Is it the same for all students? *Communication Quarterly*, 41 (4), 453-64.

Fu, G. S. (1987). The Hong Kong bilingual. In Lord, R. & Cheng, H. N. L. (Eds.) *Language Education in Hong Kong*. Hong Kong: Chinese University Press.

Fuligni, A. J. (2001). Family obligation and the academic motivation of adolescents from Asian, Latin American, and European backgrounds. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 94, 61-75.

Fuligni, A. J., Yip, T. & Tseng, V. (2002). The impact of family obligation on the daily activities and psychological well-being of Chinese American adolescents. *Child Development*, 73 (1), p302-14.

Furham, A., & Bochner, S. (1989). *Culture Shock: Psychological Reactions to Unfamiliar Environment*. London: Routledge.

Fyans, L. J., Salili, F., Maehr, M. L. & Desai, K. A. (1983). A cross-cultural exploration into the meaning of achievement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44 (5), 1000-1013.

Gagne, D. & Driscoll, M.P. (1998). *Essentials of Learning for Instruction*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Galloway, D., Rogers, C., Armstrong, A. & Leo, E. (1998). *Motivating the Difficult to Teach*. London and New York: Longman.

Gardner, H. (1991). *To Open Minds*. New Work: Basic Books.

Gardner, R. C. & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Gardner, R. C. & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A students' contributions to second language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching*, 26, 1-11.

Gardner, R. C. & Tremblay, P. F. (1995). On motivation: measurement and conceptual considerations. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 524—27.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social Psychology and Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation*. London: Ontario: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C. (1992). Second Language Learning in Adults: Correlates of proficiency. *Applied Language Learning*, 2, 1—28.

Gardner, R. C., and Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning*. Rowley: Newbury House Publishers.

Ghuman, P., Wong, R. (1989). Chinese parents and English education. *Educational Research (NFER)*, 31 (2), 134-140.

Giles, H. & Byrne, J. L. (1982). An intergroup approach to second language acquisition. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 3, 17-40.

Ginsberg, E. (1992). Not just a matter of English. *HERDSA News*, 14 (1), 6-8.

Glazer, N. (2000). Culture and achievement. *Public Interest*, 140, 49-63.

Goh, C.C. M. & Foong, K. P. (1997). Chinese ESL students' learning strategies: A look at frequency, proficiency and gender. *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2 (2)..

Goodin, R.E. (1996). Inclusion and Exclusion. *Archives Europeennes de Sociologie*, 37(2), 343-371.

Graham, S. & Rees, F. (1995). Gender differences in language learning: The question of control. *Language Learning Journal*, 11, 18-19.

Graham, S. (1994). Classroom motivation from an attributional perspective. In O'Neil, H. F. Jr. and Drillings, M. (Eds.) (1994). *Motivation: Theory and Research*. Lawrence Erlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ, 31-48.

Grolnick, W. S. & Slowiaczek, M. L. (1994). Parents' involvement in children's schooling: A multidimensional conceptualisation and motivational model. *Child Development*, 65, 237-252.

Grugeon, E. & Woods, P. (1990). *Educating Perspectives in the Primary Schools*. Routledge, London and New York.

Gudykunst, W. B. & Kim, Y. Y. (1992). *Communicating with Strangers: An Approach to Intercultural Communication*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Gudykunst, W. B. (1991). *Bridging Differences: Effective Intergroup Communication*.

Gurevitch, M. (1988). *How is Social Integration Achieved?* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Gurin, P. (1999). Expert report for Gratz, et al., vs. Bolinger et al., No97-75321 <http://www.umich.edu>

Gutman, L. M. & Midgley, C. (2000). The role of protective factors in supporting the academic achievement of poor African American students during the middle school transition. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 29 (2), 223-248.

Hagborg, W. J. (1995). *Gender and Motivational Orientation among High School Students*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association (New York, NY, August 1995).

Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond Culture*. New York: Doubleday.

Harklau, L. (1994). ESL Versus Mainstream Classes: Contrasting L2 Learning Environments. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28 (2), 241-272.

Henderson, A. & Berla, N. (1994). *A New Generation for Evidence: The family is critical to student achievement*. Washington, DC: The Centre for Law and Education.

Hess, R. D. & Azuma, M. (1991). *Cultural support for schooling: Contrast between Japan and the United States*. *Educational Researchers*, 20 (90), 2-8.

Hess, R. D., Chang, C. M. & McDevitt, T. M. (1987). Cultural variation in family beliefs about children's performance in mathematics: Comparisons of People's Republic of China, Chinese American, and Caucasian-American families. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 79 (2), 179-188.

Hicks, L. (1997). How Do Academic Motivation and Peer Relationships Mix in an Adolescent's World? *Middle School Journal*, 28 (4), p18-22.

Ho, D. Y. F. & Kan, T. K. (1984). 'Integrational comparisons of child-rearing attitudes and practices in Hong Kong', *Developmental Psychology*, 20, 1004-16.

Ho, D. Y. F. (1986). Chinese patterns of socialisation: A critical review.

In M. H. Bond (Ed.). *The Psychology of the Chinese People*. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

Ho, D. Y. F. (1987). Surveying student beliefs about language learning, In A. L. Wenden and J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner Strategies in Language Learning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Holloway, S. D. & Hess, R. D. (1990). Mother's and teacher's attribution about children's mathematics performance. IN Sigel, I. E. (Ed.) *Parental Belief System: The psychological consequences for children*. Hillsdale, N. J.: Ealbaum.

Holloway, S. D., Kashiwagi, K., Hess, R. D. & Azuma, H. (1986). Casual attributions by Japanese and American mothers and children about performance in Mathematics. *International Journal of Psychology*, 21, 269-286.

Hong Kong 1993—1995, Population and Immigration. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Government.

Hong Kong Children Association (1996). *New Immigrations' Integration Report*.

Hong Kong Family Welfare Society Integrated Family Service for New Arrivals and School Social Work Service (2003). *Study on Effectiveness of an Integrated Project for Facilitating the Adjustment and Integration of the New Arrival Secondary School Students*. December, 2000.

Hong Kong International Social Services Centre (1997). *New Arrivals Report*.

Hong Kong: HKISSC.

Hong Kong NAHK Information (2001). Hong Kong Social Services Association.

Hong Kong Psychology Society (1997). *Equal Opportunities of Newly Arrivals*.

Hong Kong: Hong Kong Psychology Society.

Hong Kong teachers' Association (1994). *Education Problems Faced by New Arrival Students*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Teachers' Association.

Hong Kong University, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong Baptist University and Hong Kong Institute of Education (2003). A study on how Hong Kong teachers view NAHK students and local Hong Kong students. *Ming Pao*, 7 October, 2003, A16.

Hong Kong Youth Association (1995). *Adaptation of Hong Kong New Arrival Youngsters*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Youth Association.

Hong Kong YWCA (1999). *NAHK Youngsters Social Adjustment Report*.

Hong, E. & Lee, K. H. (1999). *Preferred Homework Style and Homework Environment in High- versus Low- Achieving Chinese Students*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Montreal, Quebec, Canada, April 19-23, 1999).

Hu, H. C. (1944). The Chinese concepts of face. *American Anthropologists*, 46, 45-64.

Huang, F. C. (1982). *Chinese Students in Japan in the late Ch'ing period*.

Huang, J. Y. (1997). *Chinese students and Scholars in American Higher Education*. Westport: Praegar.

Huang, W. Y. (1976). A research on the relation between parental discipline and personality traits of public junior high school students. *Thought and Word (Taipei)*, 14 (2), 54-65, 14 (3), 41-60.

Hudson, G. (2000). *Essential Introductory Linguistics*. Blackwell Publishers.

Hull, C. L. (1943). *Principles of Behaviour*. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts.

Igoe, A. R. & Sullivan, H. (1991). *Gender and Grade-Level Differences in Student Attributes Related to School Learning and Motivation*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Chicago, IL, April 3-7, 1991).

Jary, D. & Jary, J. (1991). *The HarperCollins Dictionary of Sociology*. HarperCollins.

Jou, Y. H. & Fukada, H. (1996). Influences of social supports and personaility on adjustment of Chinese students in Japan. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 26 (20), 1795-1803.

Kelly, C., Sachdev, I., Kottsieper, P. & Ingram, M. (1993). The role of social identity in second language proficiency and use: Testing the intergroup model. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 12, 288-301.

Kim, Y. Y. (1988a). *Communication and Cross-Cultural Adaptation: An Integrative Theory*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Kim, Y. Y. (1988b). On theorising intercultural communication. In Kim, Y. & Gudykunst, W. B. (Eds.) *Theories in Intercultural Communication* (11-21). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Kim, Y. Y. (1995). Cross-cultural adaptation: An integrative theory. In Wiseman, R. L. (Ed.) *Intercultural Communication Theory*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Kinicki, A. J. & Griefeth, R. W. (1985). The impact of sex-role stereotypes on performance ratings and casual attributions of performance. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 27, 155-366.

Koutsoulis, M. K. & Campbell, J. R. (2001). Family processes affect students' motivation, and science and math achievement in Cypriot high schools. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 8 (1), p108-27.

Kozminsky, E. & Kozminsky, L. (2002). The Dialogue Page: Teacher and Student Dialogues To Improve Learning Motivation. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 38 (2), p88-95.

Kroeber, L. & Kluckhohn, C (1952). *Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions*. Papers of the Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology.

Kyung-Hee Nah (1993). Services, International Social Service Delivery for Korean Immigrants. *Social Work*, 38 (3).

Lai, E. (1993). Cooperative learning in geography class. In Biggs, J. & Watkins, D. (Eds.) *Learning and Teaching in Hong Kong: What is and what might be*. Hong Kong: Education Paper No. 17, University of Hong Kong, p.177-188.

Lai, E. (1999). Motivation To Learn English in Hong Kong. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 12 (3), 280-84.

Lam, C. M. H. (2001). *Cultural Adjustment and Intercultural Communication: Academic exchange and interaction among Mainland Chinese and Hong Kong Chinese Students*. Thesis. University of Durham.

Lambert, W. (1974). Culture and language as factors in learning and education In F. Aboud & R. Meade (Eds.) *Cultural and Language as Factors in Learning*

and Education. Bellingham, Washington, 5th Western Washington Symposium on Learning.

Land, H., Nishimoto, R. & Chau, K. (1988). Intervention and preventive services for Vietnamese Chinese refugees, *Social Service Review*, 62, 468-484.

Landecker, W. S. (1981). *Class Crystallisation*. New Brunswick, N.J. : Rutgers University Press.

Lau, S. S. (Ed.) (1999). *Educating New Arrivals in Hong Kong: A Learning Experience*. Hong Kong: The Hong Kong Institute of Hong Kong.

Leung, K. & Bond, M. H. (1984). The impact of cultural collectivism on reward allocation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47 (4), 793-804.

Lewis, J. W. (1965). 'Education and political development: a study of pre-school training programs in Mainland China'. In J. S. Coleman (Ed.) *Education and Political Development*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

Li, C. (1990). An ESL motivations assessment for a community-based ESL programme. *TESL Canada Journal*, 7 (2), 31-44.

Lightbown, P. L. & Spada, N. (1999). *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford: Oxford.

Lin, A. M. Y. & Detaramani, C. (1998). By carrot and by rod: Extrinsic motivation and English attainment of tertiary students in Hong Kong. In W. Littlewood & N. F. Liu (1996). *Hong Kong Students and their English*. Hong Kong : Macmillan Publishers (China) Ltd.

Littlewood, W. (1996). *How Do Secondary Students Perceive Their English Learning Experience?* Report on a “Young Post” Readers Survey. Hong Kong: New Horizon in Education #37.

Liu, J. (1992). Bridging language and culture: A cognitive approach to the study of Chinese compounds. *Journal of the Chinese Language Teachers Association*, 28 (3), 1-19.

Lo, G. T., Wan, A. D. & Chung, P.L. (1999). *A Survey Study n Psychological Adaptation of Newly arrived Students from Mainland China*. Welfare Social Centre, Hong Kong.

Locke, E. A. & Lathan, G. P. (1990). *A Theory of Goal Setting and Task Performance*. Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Locke, E. A. & Lathan, G. P. (1994). Goal setting theory. In O’Neil, H F, Jr & Drillings, M (Eds.) *Motivation: Theory and Research*, 13—29.

Lyczak, R et al. (1976). Attitudes of Hong Kong bilinguals towards English and Chinese speakers. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 7. 425-436.

- Lysgaard, S. (1999). Adjustment into foreign society: Norwegian cases. *International Journal of Social Science*, 7.
- Ma, X. (1999). Dropping out of advanced Mathematics: The effect of parental; involvement. *Teacher College Record*, 101 (1) 60-81.
- Maehr, M. (1974). Culture and achievement motivation. *American Psychologist*, 29 (12), 887-896.
- Maehr, M. L. & Nicholls, J. G. (1980). Culture and achievement motivation: A second look. In N. Warren (Ed.) *Studies in Cross-cultural Psychology*. New York: Academic Press.
- Maehrm M. L. (1984). Meaning and motivation: Towards a theory of personal investment. In Ames, R. C. and Ames C. (Eds.) *Research on Motivation in Education—Student Motivation (Vol. 1)* Boston: Academic Press.
- Markham, P. L. (1988). Gender differences and the perceived expertness of the speaker as factors in ESL listening recall. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22, 397-406.
- Markus, H. R., Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98 (2), 224-53.
- Martinez, P. E. (1981). *Home environment and academic achievement: There is a correlation*. Paper presented at the National Association or Bilingual Education Conference, Boston, MA.

McClelland, D. C. (1963). 'Motivational patterns in Southeast Asia with special reference to the Chinese case'. *Social Issues*, 19, 6-19.

McHuge, M. C., Fisher, J. E. & Frieze, I. H. (1982). Effect of situational factors on the sled-attributions of females and makes. *Sex Roles*, 8 (4), 389-397.

McLeod, D. B. (1992). Research on affect in mathematics education: A reconceptualisation. In Grouws, D. A. (Ed.) *Handbook of Research on Mathematics Teaching and Learning*. New York: MacMillan.

Meece, J. L. & Jones, M. G. (1996). Gender differences in motivation and strategy use in science: Are girls rote learners? *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 33 (4), 393-406.

Mid-2004 Population (2004). Census and Statistics Department, HKSAR Government. URL:
http://www.info.gov.hk/censtatd/eng/press/population/pop_latest_index.html [1 February 2005]

Ming Pao (10 July 2003)

Mitchell, R. E. (1972a). *Family Life in Urban Hong Kong*. Taipei: Oriental Cultural Service.

Mitchell, R. E. (1972b). *Pupil, Parent, and School: A Hong Kong study*. Taipei: Oriental Cultural Service.

Moll, L. (1995). Bilingual classroom studies and community analysis: Some recent trends. In Garcia, O. & Baker, C. (Eds.) *Policy and practice in bilingual education: Extending the foundations*. Bristol, PA: Multilingual Matters.

Mordkowitz, E. R. & Ginsburg, H. P. (1987). Early academic socialisation of successful Asian-American college students. *The Quarterly Newsletter of the Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition*, 9 (2), 85-91.

Moss, E. & St-Laurent, D. (2001). Attachment at school age and academic performance. *Developmental Psychology*, 37 (6), p863-74.

Murray, H. A. (1938). *Explorations in Personality*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Nakagawa, K. (2000). Unthreading the ties that bind: Questioning the discourse of parent involvement. *Educational Policy*, 14 (4).

National Institute of Health (1997). *Results of NICHD study of early childcare news alert*. Washington, DC. National Institute of Health.

Nelson, G. (1995). *Cultural differences in learning styles*. In J. M. Reid (Eds.) *Learning Styles in the ESL/EFL Classroom (3-18)*. Boston, Mass: Heinle and Heinle.

Nicholla, J. G. (1978). The development of the concepts of effort and ability, perception of academic attainment, and the understanding that difficult tasks require more ability. *Child Development*, 49, 800-814.

Niemivirta, M. (1997). *Gender Differences in Motivational-Cognitive Patterns of Self-Regulated Learning*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Chicago, IL, March 24-28, 1997).

Niles, F. S. (1995). Cultural differences in learning motivation and learning strategies: A comparison of overseas and Australian students at an Australian university. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 19 (3) 369—385.

Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and Language Learning: Social Processes and Educational Practice*. Longman, London.

Oberg, K. (1975). *Culture Shock Adjustment to New Environments*. Practical anthropology.

Orleans, L. A. (1988). *Chinese Students in America: Policies, Issues, and Numbers*. Washington, DC. National Academy Press.

Oxford, R. L. & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies: A pilot study. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 291-300.

Oxford, R. L. & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: expanding the theoretical framework. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 12—28.

Parsons, J. E. & Ruble, D. N. (1977). The development of achievement-related expectancies. *Child Development*, 48, 1075-1079.

Pearson, E. & Rao, N. (2003). Socialization goals, parenting practices, and peer competence in Chinese and English preschoolers. *Early Child Development and Care*, 173 (1), p131-46.

Peng, S. S. (1993). *Fostering Student Discipline and Effort: Approaches Used in Chinese Schools*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (April 12-16, 1993). Author is affiliated with the Center for Education Statistics (NCES).

Pennington, M. C. (Ed.) (1994). *Language in Hong Kong at Century's End*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Petri, H. L. (1996). *Motivation*. Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Pilgrim, C., Luo, Q. & Urberg, K. A. (1999). Influence of peers, parents, and individual characteristics on adolescent drug use in two cultures. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 45 (1), p85-107.

Pintrich, P.R. & Schunk, D. H. (1996). *Motivation in Education: Theory, Research and Application*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Plata, M., Robertson, H. (1998). Cultural sensitivity: A factor in the success for students of color. *Journal of instructional psychology*, 25, 115-121.

Plecha, M. (2002). *The Impact of Motivation, Student-Peer, and Student-Faculty Interaction on Academic Self-Confidence*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New Orleans, LA, April 1-5, 2002).

Post, R. D. (1981). Casual explanations of male and female academic performance as a function of sex-role biases. *Sex Roles*, 7 (7), 691-698.

Pryor, C. B. (1992). Integrating immigrants into American schools. *Social Work Education*, 14(3), 153-159.

Redden, W. (1975). *Culture Shock*. Frederockton, N. B. Canada.
Relationships and Interactions in a Multilingual Preschool Classroom. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Montreal, Quebec, Canada, April 19-23, 1999).

Reynolds, H. (1970). Abstract-Overseas Chinese college students in the Philippines: A case study. *Silliman Journal*, 17 (3), 345-346.

Richards, S. (1993). *Motivation in Second Language Learning: A Hong Kong perspective*. Research Report #32. Hong Kong: Department of English, City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.

Ridley, C. P., Godwin, P. H. B. & Doolin, D. G. (1971). *The Making of a Model Citizen in Communist China*. Stanford, California: Hoover Institute.

Rotter, J. B. (1982). *The Development and Application of Social Learning Theory*. New York: Praeger.

Rouse, K. A. G. & Austin, J. T. (2002). The relationship of gender and academic performance to motivation: Within-ethnic-group variations. *Urban Review*, 34 (4), 293-316.

Ruben, B. D. & Kim, J. Y. (1975). *General systems theory and human communication*. Richelle Part, NJ: Hayden.

Ruble, D. N., Boggiano, A. K., Feldman, N. S. & Loeb, J. H. (1980). Developmental analysis of the role of social comparison in self-evaluation. *Developmental Psychology*, 16 (2), 105-115.

Ruble, D., Parsons, J. & Ross, J. (1976). Self-evaluative responses of children in an achievement setting. *Child Development*, 47, 990-997.

Ryan, A. M., Hicks, L. & Midgley, C. (1997). Social goals, and avoiding seeking help in the classroom. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 17 (2), 152-171.

Ryan, R. M. (1994). Representations of relationships to teachers, parents, and friends as predictors of academic motivation and self-esteem. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 14 (2), p226-49.

Ryan, R.M. & Powelson, C.L. (1991). Autonomy and relatedness as fundamental to motivation and education. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 60 (1) 49-66.

Salili, F. & Make, P. H. T. (1988). Subjective meaning of success in high and low achievers. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 12, 125-138.

Salili, F. (1995). Explaining Chinese motivation and achievement: Culture, motivation and achievement. In Maehr, M. L. & Pintrich, P. R. (Eds.) *Advances in Motivation and Achievement: Culture, motivation and achievement*. Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Salili, F. (1996). Achievement Motivation: A Cross-Cultural Comparison of British and Chinese Students. *Educational Psychology*, 16 (3), 271-79.

Salili, F., & Hau, T. (1994). The effect of teachers' evaluative feedback on Chinese students' perception of ability: A cultural and situational analysis. *Education Studies*, 20, 223-236.

Sancar-Fluckiger, A. M. (1996). Integration of Migrants — An Extraordinary Undertaking? An Analysis of Swiss Policy and Handling of Resident Immigrants; a Minicipal Example — Bern. *Innovation*, 9(1), 97-103.

Schneider, B. & Lee Y. (1990). A model for academic success: The school and home environment of East Asian students. *Anthropology and Educational Quarterly*, 21 (4), 358-377.

- Schumann, J. H. (1978). The acculturation model for second language acquisition. In Gingras, R. (Ed.) *Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching*. Centre of Applied Linguistics, Arlington, VA.
- Schumann, J. H. (1986). Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 7, 379-92.
- Schumann, J. H. (1998). *The Neurobiology of Affect in Language*. Blackwell, Oxford.
- Schunk, D. H. (1990). Introduction to the special section on motivation and efficacy. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 3-6.
- Schwartz, D., Chang, L., Farver, J. M. (2001). Correlates of victimization in Chinese children's peer groups. *Developmental Psychology*, 37 (4), p520-32.
- Searle, W. & Ward, C. (1990). The prediction of psychological and socio-cultural adjustment during cross-cultural transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14, 449-464.
- Selmer, J. (1997a). *Culture shock? Western expatriate business managers adjusting to life and work in the Chinese Mainland*. BRC Papers on Cultural Management. Business Research Centre: Hong Kong Baptist University.

Selmer, J. (1997b). *Adjustment problems in the Motherland: Hong Kong Chinese expatriate managers on assignment in China*. BRC Papers on Cultural Management. Business Research Centre: Hong Kong Baptist University.

Shan Shu Po District Council (1997). *Sham Shui Po's Newly Arrived Youngsters' Need Analysis*. Hong Kong: Sham Shui Po District Council.

Shen, Y. L. & Peterson, G. (1999). *Effect of Chinese Parental Practices on Their Adolescent Children's School Performance, Moderated by Student's Conformity to Parents, Self-Esteem, and Self-Efficacy*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Montreal, Canada, April 19-23, 1999).

Shih, T. A. (1998). Finding the niche: Friendship formation of immigrant adolescents. *Youth & Society*, 30 (2), p209-40.

Shumow, L. & Miller, J. D. (2001). Parents' at-home and at-school academic involvement with young adolescence. *Journal of Adolescent Research*. 14 (3) 359-382.

Siu, S. F. (1992). How Do Family and Community Characteristics Affect Children's Education Achievement? The Chinese-American Experience. *Equity and Choice*, 8 (2), 46-49.

Siu, S. F. (1994). Taking No Chances: A Profile of a Chinese-American Family's Support for School Success. *Equity and Choice*, 10 (2), 23-32.

Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual Differences in Second Language Learning*.

London: Edward Arnold.

Skehan, P. (1991). Individual differences in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13, 275—298.

Skinner, E. A. & Belmont, M. J. (1993). Motivation in classroom: Reciprocal effects of teacher behaviour and students engagement across the school year.

Journal of Educational Psychology, 85 (4), 571-581.

Slay, J. (2000). *The Nature of Nature: Chinese Culture and Science Education*.

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching (Boston, MA, March 28-31, 1999).

Smith, D. C. (1992). The Chinese Family in Transition: Implications for

Education and Society in Modern Taiwan. *Asia Culture Quarterly*, Fall 1992.

Solomon, R. H. (1965). Educational themes in China's changing culture. *China Quarterly*, 22, 154-70.

South China Morning Post, 10 June 2002

Stevenson, H. W. & Stigler, J. (1992). *The learning gap: Why our schools are failing and what can we learn from Japanese and Chinese education*. New York: Summit Books.

- Stipek, D. J. (1981). Children's perceptions of their own and their classmates' ability. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73 (3), 404-410.
- Sun, W. & Chen, G. M. (1997). *Dimensions of difficulties Mainland Chinese Students Encounter in the United States*. Paper presented at the International Conference in Cross-cultural Communication.
- Sweeney, P. D., Anderson, K. & Bailey, S. (1986). Attribution style in depression: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38, 254-274.
- Tajfel, H. (1978). Intergroup behaviour II: Group perspectives. In Tajfel, H. & Fraser, C (Eds.) *Introducing Social Psychology: An analysis of Individual Reaction and Response*. Penguin, Harmondsworth, p. 423-426.
- Tang, K. C. C. (1991). *Effects of different assessment procedures on tertiary students' approaches to learning*. The University of Hong Kong: PhD Dissertation.
- Tannenbaum, M. & Howie, P. (2002). The association between language maintenance and family relations: Chinese immigrant children in Australia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 23 (5), p408-24.
- Terwilliger, J. S. & Titus, J. C. (1995). Gender differences in attitudes and attitude changes among mathematically talented youth. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 39 (1), 29-35.

Ting, H. Y. (1999). *Different "Chinese" Playing Together: The Intra-Group*

Ting-Toomney, S. (1999). *Communicating Across Cultures*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Tinsman, M. W. (1983). *Culture and Social Behaviour*. New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Tizard, J. Schofield, W. N. & Hewison, J. (1982). Collaboration between teachers and parents in assisting children's reading. *British Journal of Education Psychology*, 52, 1-15.

Tsuen Wan Caritas Community Centre (2000). *New Arrivals' Adjustment*. Tsuen Wan Caritas Community Centre Publisher.

Upton, T. A. (1989). Chinese students, American universities, and cultural confrontation. *MinneTESOL Journal*, 7, 9-28.

Walters, S. & Balla, J. R. (1992). *English Medium of Instruction at City Polytechnic of Hong Kong*. Research Report 17. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.

Wang, A., Stevens, B., Chen, P. & Qian, M. (1999). The impact of family socialization practices on children's socialization in China. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 14 (1), p91-102.

Wang, J. & Staver, J. R. (1997). An empirical study of gender differences in Chinese students' science achievement. *Journal of Educational Research*, 90 (4), 252-55.

Wang, Z. (1993). *Factors That Affect Chinese EFL Learner's Acquisition*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (27th, Atlanta, GA, April 13-17, 1993).

Watkins, D. (2000). Learning and teaching: A cross-cultural perspective. *School Leadership & Management*, 20 (2), 161-73.

Weiner, B. & Peter, N. (1973). A cognitive developmental analysis of achievement and moral judgments. *Developmental Psychology*, 9 (3), 290-309.

Weiner, B. (1979). A Theory of Motivation for some Classroom Experiences. *Journal of Education Psychology*, 71, 3—25.

Weiner, B. (1984). Principles of a theory of students motivation and their application with an attributional framework. In Ames, R. C. and Ames C. (Eds.) *Research on Motivation in Education—Student Motivation (Vol. 1)* Boston: Academic Press.

Weiner, B. (1992). *Human Motivation: Metaphors, theories and research*. London: Sage.

Weisz, J. R. & Stipek, D. J. (1982). Competence, contingency, and the development of perceived control. *Human Development*, 25, 250-281.

Weisz, J. R. (1980). Developmental change in perceived control: Recognising noncontingency in the laboratory and perceiving it in the world. *Developmental Psychology*, 16 (5), 385-390.

Wen, X. (1997). Motivation and Language Learning with Students of Chinese. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30 (2), 235-51.

Wentzel, K. R. (1998). Social Relationships and Motivation in Middle School: The Role of Parents, Teachers, and Peers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90 (2), p202-09.

Wigfield, A., Eccles, J.S., & Rodriguez, D. (1998). The development of children's motivation in school contexts. *Review of Research in Education*, 23, 73-118.

Williams, M. & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Willson-Quayle, A. & Winsler, A. (2000). *How Much Teacher Direction Is Best for Promoting Low-Income Latino Preschoolers' Learning, Motivation, and Private Speech? A Controlled Experiment*. Paper presented at the Head Start

National Research Conference on Development and Contextual Transitions of Children and Families (5th, Washington, DC, June 28-July 1, 2000).

Winter, S. (1990). Teacher approval and disapproval in Hong Kong secondary school classrooms. *British Journal of Education Psychology*, 60, 88-92.

Wlodkoswki, R. J. & Jaynes, J. H. (1990). *Eager to Learn*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Wolleat, P. L., Pedro, J. D. Becker, A. D. & Fennema, E. (1980). Sex differences in high school students' casual attributions of performance in mathematics. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 11 (5), 356-366.

Wong, M. H. (2001). *Motivation of Learning English: A Comparative Study of Sixth Formers and Fourth Formers in Hong Kong*. An unpublished paper for MA Language Studies at Hong Kong Baptist University.

Yoshikawa, D. (1988). Culture, adaptation and perceptual development. In Yoshikawa, D. (Ed.) (1988) *Cross-cultural Adaptation Current Approaches*. Sage Publication.

Yu, A. B. & Yang, K. S. (1987). Social and individual-oriented achievement motivation: A conceptual and empirical analysis. Bulletin of the Institute of Ethnology, *Academica Sinica*, 64, 51-98.

Yu, C., Liu, N. F. & Littlewood, W. (1996). How do secondary students perceive their English language experience? *New Horizons in Education*, 37. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Teachers' Association.

Yussen, S. R. & Berman, L. (1981). Memory predictions for recall and recognition in first-, third-, and fifth-grade children. *Developmental Psychology*, 17 (20), 224-229.

Zammit, S. A. (1993). *Motivation, Test Results, Gender Differences, and Foreign Languages: How Do They Connect?* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Language Testing Research Colloquium (15th, Cambridge, England, United Kingdom, August 3, 1993).

Zhong, M. (1996). *Chinese students and scholars in the US: An Intercultural adaptation process*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association.

Zweig, D. & Chen, C. G. (1995). *China's Brain Drain to the United States: Views of Overseas Chinese Students and Scholars in the 1990s*. Berkeley: Institute of East Asian Studies, University of California, Berkeley, Centre of Chinese Studies.

Appendix 1--Sample of interview transcript

Participant 1

Interview transcript (Questionnaire #18)

Date: 21 February 2006

Time: 3:35pm

Venue: The Hong Kong Institute of Education, Hong Kong.

R: Researcher

LTY: Participant 1

R: Thank you very much for volunteering and coming to this interview. LTY1

LTY: That's OK. LTY 2

R: This interview will last for about 30 minutes. Please
feel free to say anything, explain and elaborate.
Your identity will remain confidential in the whole

study. I will also use a tape-recorder to record our interview for future reference. I will also make notes when you are speaking. Is that OK with you?

LTY: Sure, no problem. LTY 4

R: Great. Do you know what we are investigating? LTY 5

LTY: Yes, roughly. You want to know why I study English. LTY 6

R: Yes, that's right. So we will ask you reasons why you learn English, how you learn English and who help you learn English. You can always add things you would like to share anytime. Do not be afraid or shy. OK? LTY 7

LTY: No problem. LTY 8

R: OK, are you ready then? LTY 9

LTY: Yeah. LTY 10

R: First of all, can you tell me why you learn English? LTY11

- LTY: Um...I think learning English is important. If we don't know English, it is hard to survive. Also, English is a compulsory subject in Hong Kong. If it is not important, it will not be a compulsory subject...also, if I can't pass English in HKCEE, I can't go to university, then I can't get a good job. LTY 12
- R: I see....so the ultimate goal of your learning English is to get a good job. LTY 13
- LTY: Yes. LTY 14
- R: Can you think of other reasons why you learn English? LTY 15
- LTY: Umm...I can also use English to meet people from other countries. It is an international language. Also, I will have a better job prospect if I can speak good English. LTY 16
- R: OK, you've mentioned two things here. One: meet people from other countries. Two: have a better job prospect. Let's deal with them individually. Can you first tell me more about why English can make you meet people from other parts of the world? LTY 17

- LTY: Um...First of all, if I can't speak English, how can I communicate with people who can't speak Cantonese or Putunghua? Second, if I can communicate with people of other languages, I will be able to know their culture and the different living styles. I think it is very interesting to know people of other cultures. LTY 18
- R: I see. What about have a better job prospect. How can learning English give you a better job prospect? LTY 19
- LTY: That's simple. If I can speak good English, my boss can send me overseas for business trips...but I know it is only my dream. LTY 20
- R: Well, don't look yourself down. Your future is in your own hand. There is time still, just put more effort and work harder. OK? Shall we move on to the next question? LTY 21
- LTY: Sure. LTY 22
- R: Do you like learning English in Hong Kong? LTY 23

LTY:	Um...I don't... actually...	LTY 24
R:	Why?	LTY 25
LTY:	Um...because it is very hard. My English is not good. It is very hard to follow what the teacher says in the class. Sometimes I don't even know what to do in the class.	LTY 26
R:	So what do you do?	LTY 27
LTY:	I just follow my classmates. I do what they do.	LTY 28
R:	Oh...Are there any other reasons that make you not like learning English in Hong Kong?	LTY 29
LTY:	I don't like the exam pressure. When I came to Hong Kong, I realized that English is one the subjects I must pass the following year...I was so shocked and scared.	LTY 30
R:	Shocked and scared. Why?	LTY 31
LTY:	Well, I didn't know English is that important in	LTY 32

Hong Kong when I was in Mainland China. In Mainland China, we just could not care less about learning English. We treated it just like any other subjects. You could fail English without having anyone telling you off. Also, my English teacher would not push us if we did not want to learn it. After I came to Hong Kong, I realized that English was actually very important and everyone must pass HKCEE in order to keep a place to further their study. I felt so scared and hopeless because my English was so poor.

R: I see. I can feel how you felt then. So, do you think it is harder to learn English in Hong Kong then? LTY 33

LTY: Of course. As I have just said, my English teacher would not push me if I did not study hard. But in Hong Kong, my English teacher pushes us so hard to learn English. Many assignments, quizzes, dictations...almost every week I have a compulsory English remedial class to attend. So much pressure, you know? LTY 34

R: Don't you think it's a good thing then? Didn't you say your English is poor and teachers in China did LTY 35

not push you enough?

LTY: Yes, I know what the teacher does is for our own good. She desperately wants us to pass English, but you know I feel so tired after school already, still I need to go to remedial classes, do assignments and prepare for all sorts of quizzes. Every night I go to bed at 1 or 2 in the morning. Every day is the same. Don't you think it's too much? LTY 36

R: Yeah, I can feel the pressure too. So, it is the exam pressure that stresses you a lot, right? LTY 37

LTY: Yeah. LTY 38

R: Then what about English as a language? Do you like English as a language? LTY 39

LTY: Of course I do. I like the intonation of English. I don't like Cantonese because it is not a melodic language. When you speak English, you can feel the fluency. I am always impressed by people who speak fluent English. They speak as if they are singing. LTY 40

- R: I see. That is a very poetic description. So, you don't feel repelled to learn English. LTY 41
- LTY: No, I don't mind learning...it's just the exam pressure that puts me off. Only if I can have more time, then I think I can catch up step by step. LTY 42
- R: Then, why did not you request to study F3 instead of F4 when you first came to Hong Kong? LTY 43
- LTY: Ms Wong, I am already 19. It's already very lucky of me who can still stay in school. What else could I ask? LTY 44
- R: I don't quite understand what you meant. Can you explain a bit more? Why did you say you are lucky enough to stay in school? LTY 45
- LTY: Oh...that....you know when you are over certain age...I don't know how what age...Hong Kong government will not assist you to find a place to study. Also, my family is not rich, if I start from F3, they will have to support me one more year. They can't afford this. When I was in China, I was already in senior high school. If someone asked me LTY 46

to start from junior high, I am afraid I could not comply...so it is very complicated and I got mixed feelings too.

R: So, it is the government policy, your family financial situation and your self-esteem that decided you should go to Form 4. LTY 47

LTY: That's right. LTY 48

R: You have mentioned something very important just now which I would like to ask you further questions. LTY 49

LTY: Sure. LTY 50

R: Well, there is basically nothing we can do with the government policy and your family financial situation. However, for self-esteem, there is something you can do, right? Imagine if you were given two choices: one, a bit of defeat on self-esteem with a better foundation of English. And, two, self-esteem remained unchanged but poor English, which you have mentioned a couple of times that your English is not good and you wish LTY 51

you had more time to catch up your English.

LTY: Miss, you are right. If I had a choice of course I
would choose the second option. But what is more
important then was not how I felt. It was my family
financial situation. If money does not allow, what
can I do? LTY 52

R: Oh....now I understand better. It means of your
family allows you, you might give a thought to
repeating F3 to catch up your English. LTY 53

LTY: Yeah. LTY 54

R: OK, shall we move on to the next question? LTY 55

LTY: Yes. LTY 56

R: Do you think learning English can help you
integrate with the Hong Kong students or people? LTY 57

LTY: Oh, sure. When you speak English or even
Cantonese, they can tell you are from Mainland
China. If I can speak very good English, or even
better than the Hong Kong people do, then I can LTY 58

communicate with the Hong Kong people in English only. They may have a better impression of me.

R: Why do you say Hong Kong people will have a better impression of you? LTY 59

LTY: Well, you know people in Hong Kong do have some kind of “discrimination” towards Mainlanders. If I speak English, not Cantonese, with them, they may think I am educated and “a bit more superior” than the normal mainlanders. Also, I can hide my accent. LTY 60

R: Hide your accent? LTY 61

LTY: Yeah...I have Mainland accent no matter when I speak English or Cantonese. If my English is good, then people won't look down on me, or at least they are more willing to be my friends. LTY 62

R: Um. Interesting. So you think it is the accent obstructs your integration? LTY 63

LTY: Sort of. Accent is the first thing people identify you, LTY 64

right? It's already hard to meet friends, not to mention the local people know that you are from Mainland China. If I had no accent, HK people would not see me differently and I will have a better chance meeting more friends.

R: You don't want to be viewed differently? LTY 65

LTY: In a good way, fine. If not, no. LTY 66

R: You mean people in Hong Kong view Mainland Chinese in an unfriendly way? LTY 67

LTY: Yes. We are looked down and Hong Kong people always judge people out of their first impression. LTY 68

R: In that case, do you still want to be integrated with Hong Kong people if Hong Kong people are so unfriendly? LTY 69

LTY: Now I don't have a choice, do I? LTY 70

R: Um. It's interesting to hear that. OK. Let's talk about the situation of English learning in Hong Kong classroom. LTY 71

LTY:	OK.	LTY 72
R:	How do you feel in English lessons? Happy? Anxious? Nervous? Or other feelings?	LTY 73
LTY:	It is hard to describe. I think I have very mixed feelings.	LTY 74
R:	Why?	LTY 75
LTY	I think learning English in Hong Kong is more fun because teachers are friendlier, but I also feel helpless because I can see myself not being able to catch up with my class. Then exam pressure is also another factor. I always want to improve my English but I don't know where to start or how.	LTY 76
R:	Um. So what do you do to improve your English? You can't just sit here and do nothing right?	LTY 77
LTY:	Of course not. I go to tutorial school, do more grammar exercises and read more when I have time. Other than that, I don't know what to do.	LTY 78

- R: Will you give up learning English one day then? LTY 79
- LTY: For the time being, I won't. However, if I can't pass HKCEE, I think I will start working. Then, it really depends what job I can get and see if there is any chances to improve my English. I guess I won't give up learning English because it is so important. Well, but who knows what is going to happen? LTY 80
- R: That's true. So, are you happy with what you have been learning in English lesson? LTY 81
- LTY: Um..I like the classroom atmosphere. It is less boring compared with Mainland China. But things I am learning are too difficult for me. LTY 82
- R: Then do you think you can pass Your English examinations? LTY 83
- LTY: Well, if it is internal quizzes and dictation. I have no problem with that because you can just focus on one thing, but for HKCEE, I know I might not be able to pass because I can not study for it. My foundation is too poor. LTY 84

- R: Well, don't see yourself short for the time being. LTY 85
Try your best first then see what will happen, OK?
- LTY: Yes, I know. I will. LTY 86
- R: Tell me how you feel when your English teacher LTY 87
gives you difficult assignment to do?
- LTY: Of course, I feel tired but I know it is for my own LTY 88
good. I will try my best to do it but the result is not
always desirable. There are too many difficult
vocabulary, I need to look up the dictionary. By the
time I finish looking up dictionary, I am already
tired and can't think much.
- R: Are you happy with your learning progress then? LTY 89
- LTY: Not really. I still can't pass mid-term exam. LTY 90
- R: But can you see any improvement? LTY 91
- LTY: I don't know. It is very difficult to tell. LTY 92
- R: Is there anyone encourage you to learn English? LTY 93

LTY:	Sure, my parents and my English teacher.	LTY 94
R:	How?	LTY 95
LTY:	My English teacher always asks me to see her if I have any problem.	LTY 96
R:	Do you go and see her then?	LTY 97
LTY:	No.	LTY 98
R:	Why?	LTY 99
LTY:	I think I should handle it myself. Seeing her will not make my English better. Plus she is very busy. I don't want to disturb her.	LTY100
R:	That's very considerate of you. What about your parents? Are they able to help your English work?	LTY101
LTY:	No, they can't. They don't know any English.	LTY102
R:	What about encouraging you? You mentioned that they encouraged you to learn English. How?	LTY103

- LTY: My father always says to me that I have to learn good English because he does not want me to follow his step. As for my mom, she is still in the Mainland, but when I call her on the phone, she will always ask me how my English is. LTY104
- R: What do you say then? LTY105
- LTY: I said no good. That's what worries her I think. That's why she always asks about my English. LTY106
- R: Do you like her asking how your English is? LTY107
- LTY: No, I don't. I know she cares about me. That's why she asks me the question over and over again. Every time she asks me, I feel quilt for not working hard enough, then I will go home and start spending more time on English. LTY108
- R: What about financially? Can they support you? LTY109
- LTY: You mean things like going to tutorial schools and stuff? LTY110
- R: Yeah, like tutorial schools, supplementary LTY111

exercises, books...something like that.

LTY: Every time I ask my father for money, he will give it to me. But I don't do that often because it is difficult to earn money. LTY112

R: OK, that's talk about your English teacher now. Do you think your English teacher can make you learn better English? LTY113

LTY: In some ways, yes. Like she forces us to stay after school for remedial class. I am sure that helps because I can listen more English. LTY114

R: Do you think you will learn better English if you are controlled less by your teacher? LTY115

LTY: I think what my English teacher does is correct, but I think she controls our learning too much. She would not let us go home without any assignment. That is, I don't have the spare time to read or do anything I myself like. LTY116

R: Does your English teacher demonstrate a good model of English? LTY117

LTY: Yes, she is, as far as I know. LTY118

R: Can her model improve your English then? LTY119

LTY: Um...I think it helps a bit. At least I can guess what is fluent what is not. But apart from that, I don't know how I can speak like the way she does. LTY120

R: Do you think your teacher will have a better impression of you if your English is good? LTY121

LTY: I don't know but at least if you can speak good English, you are able to communicate with your teacher then she will know you more and I will know more of her as well. Right? LTY122

R: Is it true to say that your learning English is because you do not want to disappoint your teacher? LTY123

LTY: In some ways yes. She spends so much time on helping us and giving us tutorial class. I don't want to disappoint her, but the main problem is still my poor English foundation. LTY124

- R: What if your English teacher praises you in front of the class, do you think it will motivate you to learn English and pay more effort? LTY125
- LTY: Of course! Who does not like to be praised? LTY126
- R: That's true. What about the feedback your teacher gives you? Does it help? LTY127
- LTY: Not really...because my English does no write much feedback on my work. There are only ticks and crosses. LTY128
- R: Oh. What about instruction? Does your teacher give clear instruction? LTY129
- LTY: Well, it does not matter to me because I quite often don't understand what she instructs us to do. As I have said before, quite often I just follow what other classmates do. LTY130
- R: Ok. You have been in Hong Kong for more than half a year. You know there is a reward system in your school, right? LTY131

LTY:	Yeah.	LTY132
R:	Does it motivate you to learn better English?	LTY133
LTY:	Not really.	LTY134
R:	Why?	LTY135
LTY:	Because I am not good enough. Also, I am already a grown up. I don't need that to motivate myself learning English. Learning English is always a personal matter. Rewards are just an external stimulation, nothing to do to improve my English. Right?	LTY136
R:	I see. You are a very mature person. OK, we don't have much questions left. Can you go on?	LTY137
LTY:	Yes, yes, I am fine.	LTY138
R:	Good. Alright, I want to know how you would prefer to learn English. Do you like doing group work?	LTY139
LTY:	No, I don't like doing group work. It's so	LTY140

troublesome. People are not cooperative. Everyone has their own opinion and it takes so long to have one decision compromised.

R: Haha...What about class activities? Do you like class activities? LTY141

LTY: I don't neither. LTY142

R: Why? LTY143

LTY: It is very childish and I am not sure what my role is. Also because of my poor English. My group mates do not expect me to do much. Sometimes I just sit there or do something not "English related" tasks. LTY144

R: Like what?. LTY145

LTY: Cut and paste. Any tasks that do not need English proficiency. LTY146

R: I see. So you prefer individual work. LTY147

LTY: Yes, because I can take as much time as I can. Doing group work...everyone has different working LTY148

styles. It's just too much trouble. If it is individual work, whatever grade you get is your personal matter, but group work...you do get blamed if you are not doing a good job.

R: OK, I see. So you prefer learning English by yourself than with your classmates together. LTY149

LTY: Yeah, sitting together in a classroom and listening to the teacher is not a problem, but group work and pair work...um...no....I don't like them at all. Not a single bit. LTY150

R: Well, OK. You have been very helpful. Your time is very much appreciated and I also thank you for coming all the way to Tai Po. I know it is a long way for you to come here. Thank you so much. LTY151

LTY Not a problem. I am happy to do that. I have never thought about the questions you asked me before. Now, it seems that I know myself better and understand more about my learning situation. LTY152

R: Well, let me wish you best of luck to your HKCEE as well as your final exam. LTY153

LTY: Thanks, Miss.

LTY154

R: Thank you.

LTY155

THE END

Appendix 2--Questionnaire (English version)

Please **do not** write your name
on the papers.

Questionnaire on NAHK Students' Motivation to
Learn English

(English Version)

Motives for Learning English

We would like to find out what motivates and influence your English learning. Please look at the statements below and indicate how much you agree or disagree with them. Use a ball-pen or pencil to circle the number that corresponds to your own opinions.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Tend to Disagree	Tend to Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I like what I am learning in English lessons.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	If English teacher assigns difficult English homework, I still try my best to finish it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	I want to communicate well with foreigners like my English teacher does.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I like English class activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Financial support and affective encouragement from my parents motivate me learn English in Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	I want to learn better English so that I can integrate better with my friends in Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I want to speak good English like my English teacher does.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	No matter how hard English is, I will never give up learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	English is a foreign language I like.	1	2	3	4	5	6

10.	I am not afraid of communicating English with my Hong Kong classmates in English although my accent is different from theirs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	My English teacher presents clearly when he/she asks us to perform a task.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	I prefer doing group/pair work than individual work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	My parents use different means to motivate me learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	If my friends are good at English, I want to be good at English too.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	I want to pass my English because I do not want to disappoint my teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	I don't mind putting efforts on learning English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	I learn English because it helps me to learn Hong Kong culture better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	The English I am learning in English lessons can be used in my daily life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	I understand my English teacher's instructions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Doing projects and group work help me integrate better with my classmates in Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	My parents always encourage me to improve my English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Learning English with my friends together is better than learning it by myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6

23.	I can learn better English if my English teacher controls me less.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	I have the ability to pass English test/exam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	I am very interested in what my English teacher is teaching me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	What I am learning now is useful for my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	The feedback my English teacher gives me relating to my work and learning progress is useful for my learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	My parents will teach me English when I need them to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	My parents are willing to pay for the English reference books when I need them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	The reward system in Hong Kong helps me integrate better with the new learning environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	Teacher who are more democratic can motivate me learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	My writing is up to my English teacher's expectation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	I learn English because I want to get a good job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	I believe I can pass my English tests/exams.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	Feedback from teachers encourages me learning English.	1	2	3	4	5	6

36.	My parents will point out my English mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	My parents pay for English tutorial class for me to improve my English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	A fair reward system motivates me to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	If I can master English well, my teacher will have a better impression of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	I continue learning English because I can express what I want to say without much difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	I learn English because I need English to adjust well in Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	I believe I can learn English well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	The way Hong Kong English teachers teach and interact with students help me adapt well in Hong Kong and learn good English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	I feel proud in class if my English teacher praises me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45.	I have already adapted well and am feeling comfortable with the curriculum, examinations and classroom teaching in Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	I am not afraid to make mistakes in English homework.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	I learn English because English is a necessity for my future.	1	2	3	4	5	6

48.	So far I am happy with my progress of learning English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	I try my best to learn English because I know the benefits of learning English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	I need English to study well in other subjects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	I am happy with my English test results.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	I know I will have a hard time in the future if I don't learn English well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53.	Rather different from Mainland China, having a good standard of English is a must to be successful in Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	Learning English is a key not to let people look down on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	I am not afraid to speak English in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Personal particulars:

Gender: M / F

Age: _____

Date of birth: ____/____/____

Place of birth: _____

School year attending: _____

Year arrived in Hong Kong: _____(if born outside Hong Kong)

Parent's occupation: _____

Parents' education level:

University	
Secondary	
Primary	
Kindergarten	
Illiterate	
Unknown	

Family monthly income:

Under HK\$5000	
HK\$5,001—HK\$10,000	
HK\$10,001—HK\$15,000	
HK\$15,001—HK\$20,000	
HK\$20,001 or more	

Thank you very much for your help.

Ruth MH Wong

請勿在此問卷填寫姓名

Questionnaire on Hong Kong Students'
Motivation to Learn English

(Chinese Version)

香港學童英語學習動機調查

(中文版)

我們現正研究香港學童學習英語的動機。閱讀下列各項，並用原子筆圈出最能代表你個人意見的答案。

	非常 不同意	不同 意	傾向 不同 意	傾向 同意	同意	非常 同意
1. 我喜歡我在英文課所學習的東西。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 即使英文老師給一份很難的功課，我都盡力完成。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 我希望能像我的英文老師般，用英語和外國人對答如流。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 我喜歡英文課堂上的英語活動。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 我父母在財政上的支持和平日的鼓勵能令我更投入香港的學習英語環境。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 我想在香港學好英語是因為我想和我香港的同學融合得更好。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 我希望能說到和英文老師一樣流利的英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 無論英語有多困難，我都不會放棄。	1	2	3	4	5	6

9.	英語是我喜歡的一種外語。	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	即使我的英語口音和香港的同學不一樣，我也不怕在他們面前說英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	當英文老師給練習我們做時，老師的講解清晰。	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	我喜歡做小組報告多於自己做功課。	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	我的父母經常用不同的方法推動我學英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	如果我的朋友英語水平好，我也想和他們一樣。	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	我努力學習英語因為我不想令老師失望。	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	我不介意付出努力學習英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	我學英語是因為可以欣賞到香港的文化。	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	我在英文堂所學的，都能在日常生活上應用得到。	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	我明白英文老師所給予的指引。	1	2	3	4	5	6

20.	做小組教告或專題研習能令我更容易適應香港的英語學習。	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	我的父母經常鼓勵我學好英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	與同學一起學習英語比一個人學更好。	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	如果老師給予學生多點自由的學習空間，我會學習英文學得更好。	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	我有足夠能力在英語測驗考試中取得合格成績。	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	我很喜歡英文老師所教授的東西。	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	我所學的英文都對我的學業很有幫助。	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	在功課和學習過程上，老師給我的回應都對我很有幫助。	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	當我遇到英語上的疑難，我的父母會教導我。	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	我的父母願意支付英文補充作業的費用。	1	2	3	4	5	6

30.	香港學校的獎勵制度能令我更適應香港的英語學習環境。	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	較為自由開放的英文老師可以提升我對學習英語的興趣。	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	我的英語寫作能力能夠達到英文老師的要求。	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	我學習英語是因為我想找到一份好工。	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	我相信我能在英文期終試能順利取得合格或以上的成績。	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	老師給的回應能鼓勵我學好英文。	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	我的父母會指出我在英語上所犯的錯誤。	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	我的父母願意負擔補習社的學費。	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	一個公平的獎勵制度可以令我更努力學習英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6

39.	如果我有良好的 英語成績，老師 會對我有良好的 印象。	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	我繼續學習英語 因為我並沒有太 大的困難，用英 語說出我想表達 的說話。	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	學好英語能令我 適應香港的生 活。	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	我相信我能夠學 好英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	香港英文老師的 教學方式和對學 生的態度能令我 更適應香港的英 語學習環境和更 用心學好英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	如果英文老師在 同學面前稱讚 我，我會覺得很 光榮。	1	2	3	4	5	6
45.	我對香港的英語 課程內容、考試 和授課模式都已 很適應。	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	我並不怕做英文 功課時犯錯誤。	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	我想學好英語， 因為這是為自己 的未來打算的必	1	2	3	4	5	6

	要條件。						
48.	直至現時為止， 我滿意我的英語 學習進度。	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	我學習英語因為 我明白英語為我 帶來的好處。	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	我需要英語來學 習其他的科目和 知識。	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	我滿意我的英語 成績。	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	我知道如果我現 在不努力學好英 語，我的將來將 會有很多困難。	1	2	3	4	5	6
53.	和內地不同，在 香港要出人頭 地，必須要有良 好的英語水平。	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	我知道學好英 語，別人不會小 看我。	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	我並不怕在同學 面前說英語。	1	2	3	4	5	6

個人資料：

性別：男/女 年齡：_____ 出生日期：_____/_____/_____

出生地點：_____ 抵港年份：_____ (如非在香港出生)

就讀年級：中一/中二/中三/中四/中五/中六/中七

監護人職業：_____

監護人教育程度：

大學() 中學() 小學() 沒有接受正式教育() 不知道()

家庭收入(每月)： HK\$5000 以下()

HK\$5,001—HK\$10,000 ()

HK\$10,001—HK\$15,000 ()

HK\$15,001—HK\$20,000 ()

HK\$20,001 以上()

多謝你寶貴的時間。

Appendix 4--Informed consent form

Informed Consent Form

I hereby agree to participate in the study known as “Motivation to English: The perspective of NAHK Students” carried out by Ruth Ming Har Wong. I understand that the purpose of this study is to investigate the English learning experience of NAHK students in Hong Kong.

I confirm that my participation is entirely voluntary. No coercion of any kind has been used to obtain my cooperation. I understand that I may withdraw my consent and end my participation any time during this study. I have been informed of the procedures that will be used in the project and understand what will be required of me as a subject. I understand that the interviews will be audio taped and all of my responses, written or oral, will remain completely anonymous. My real name and the name of any other identifying information of my school will not be used. I also understand that portions of the interviews could be used in the final report of the researcher’s reports and articles about the study. I understand that I will get the transcripts of all my interviews to check their accuracy and that a summary of results of the projects will be made available to me at the completion of the study if I request those. I wish to give my voluntary cooperation as a participant. I acknowledge that I have received a copy of the Informed Consent Form.

If you have any questions regarding this project, please contact Ruth Ming Har Wong at wongmh@ied.edu.hk

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 5--Grand table of means of motivation components

Motivation Dimension	Motivation Component	Sub-component	Item No.	Mean	SD	Average mean & SD of individual sub-motivation component	Average mean & SD of sub-motivation component	Average mean & SD of motivation component	Average mean & SD of motivation dimension
Language Level		Integrative motivational subsystem	9	3.733	1.160				
			17	3.541	1.110				
							Mean: 3.637 SD: 1.135		
		Instrumental motivational subsystem	33	4.560	0.956				
			41	3.954	1.090				
							Mean: 4.239 SD: 0.967		Mean: 3.938 SD: 1.135
Learner level		Need for achievement	47	4.771	0.856				
			50	4.156	1.066				
			53	4.477	1.120				
							Mean: 4.468 SD: 1.014		
		Self-confidence							
		• language use anxiety	55	3.951	1.182				
			46	4.183	1.156				
						Mean: 4.067 SD: 1.169			
		• received L2 competence	40	3.486	1.207				
			32	3.367	1.245				
						Mean: 3.427 SD: 1.226			
		• casual attributions	24	3.459	1.337				
			16	4.303	1.220				

Learning situation level		• self-efficacy				Mean: 3.881 SD: 1.279			
			2	4.000	1.277				
			10	3.900	1.170				
			8	4.239	1.312				
						Mean: 4.046 SD: 1.253			
	Course-specific motivational components	Interest (in the course)	1	3.614	1.100				
			25	3.942	1.178		Mean: 3.778 SD: 1.139		
		Relevance (of the course to one's needs)	26	4.328	1.007				
			18	4.010	1.151				
							Mean: 4.169 SD: 1.079		
		Expectancy (of success)	42	4.138	1.190				
			34	3.642	1.056				
							Mean: 3.890 SD: 1.123		
		Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)	51	2.908	1.310				
			45	3.817	1.172				
			48	3.101	1.162				
							Mean: 3.275 SD: 1.215		
								Mean: 3.778 SD: 1.139	
	Teacher-Specific Motivational components	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher)	39	4.211	0.958				
			15	3.908	0.932				
							Mean: 4.060 SD: 0.945		
		Authority type							
		• democratic type	23	4.083	1.241				
			31	4.257	0.797				

							Mean: 4.170 SD: 1.019		
		Direct Socialization of Motivation							
		• Modeling	3	4.982	1.138				
			7	4.806	0.884				
						Mean: 4.894 SD: 1.011			
		• Task Presentation	19	3.817	0.944				
			11	4.073	0.790				
						Mean: 3.945 SD: 0.867			
		• Feedback	35	4.110	0.697				
			43	3.963	0.729				
			27	4.046	0.842				
						Mean: 4.040 SD: 0.756			
							Mean: 4.293 SD: 0.878		
								Mean: 4.174 SD: 0.947	
	Group-Specific Motivational Components	Goal-orientations	52	4.677	0.952				
			54	4.168	1.167				
			49	4.514	1.010				
							Mean: 4.453 SD: 1.043		
		Norm & Reward System	38	4.027	1.112				
			30	3.743	0.929				
			44	4.138	0.869				
							Mean: 3.970 SD: 0.970		
		Group Cohesion	14	4.780	0.854				

			6	3.752	1.010				
			22	4.385	0.764				
							Mean: 4.306 SD: 0.876		
		Classroom Goal Structure	12	3.578	0.946				
			20	3.624	1.037				
			4	3.789	0.879				
							Mean: 3.664 SD: 0.954		
								Mean: 4.098 SD: 0.961	
	*Parent-Specific Motivation Components	Education Background	36	2.708	1.324				
			28	2.780	1.094				
							Mean: 2.744 SD: 1.209		
		Financial Support	29	3.853	1.426				
			37	3.927	1.182				
							Mean: 3.890 SD: 1.304		
		Affective encouragement	13	3.303	1.150				
			5	3.798	0.901				
			21	4.230	1.012				
							Mean: 3.777 SD: 1.021		
								Mean: 3.470 SD: 1.178	
	*Culture-Specific Motivation Components	Integrative motivational subsystem	17	3.541	1.110				
		Instrumental motivational subsystem	41	3.954	1.090				
		Self-confidence	10	3.900	1.170				
		Need for achievement	53	4.477	1.120				

		Course-related	45	3.817	1.172				
		Teacher-related	43	3.963	0.729				
		Goal-orientation	54	4.168	1.167				
		Norm & reward system	30	3.743	0.929				
		Group cohesion	6	3.752	1.010				
		Classroom goal structure	20	3.624	1.037				
		Parent-related	5	3.798	0.901			Mean: 3.885 SD: 1.040	Mean: 3.881 SD: 1.053
								Mean: 3.994 SD: 1.076	

**Questions integrated with cultural motivational element focusing

